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OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS**



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February 23-27, 1956

Convention Theme:

**OUR SECONDARY SCHOOLS—
CITADELS FOR PEACE AND FREEDOM**

SERVICE ORGAN FOR AMERICAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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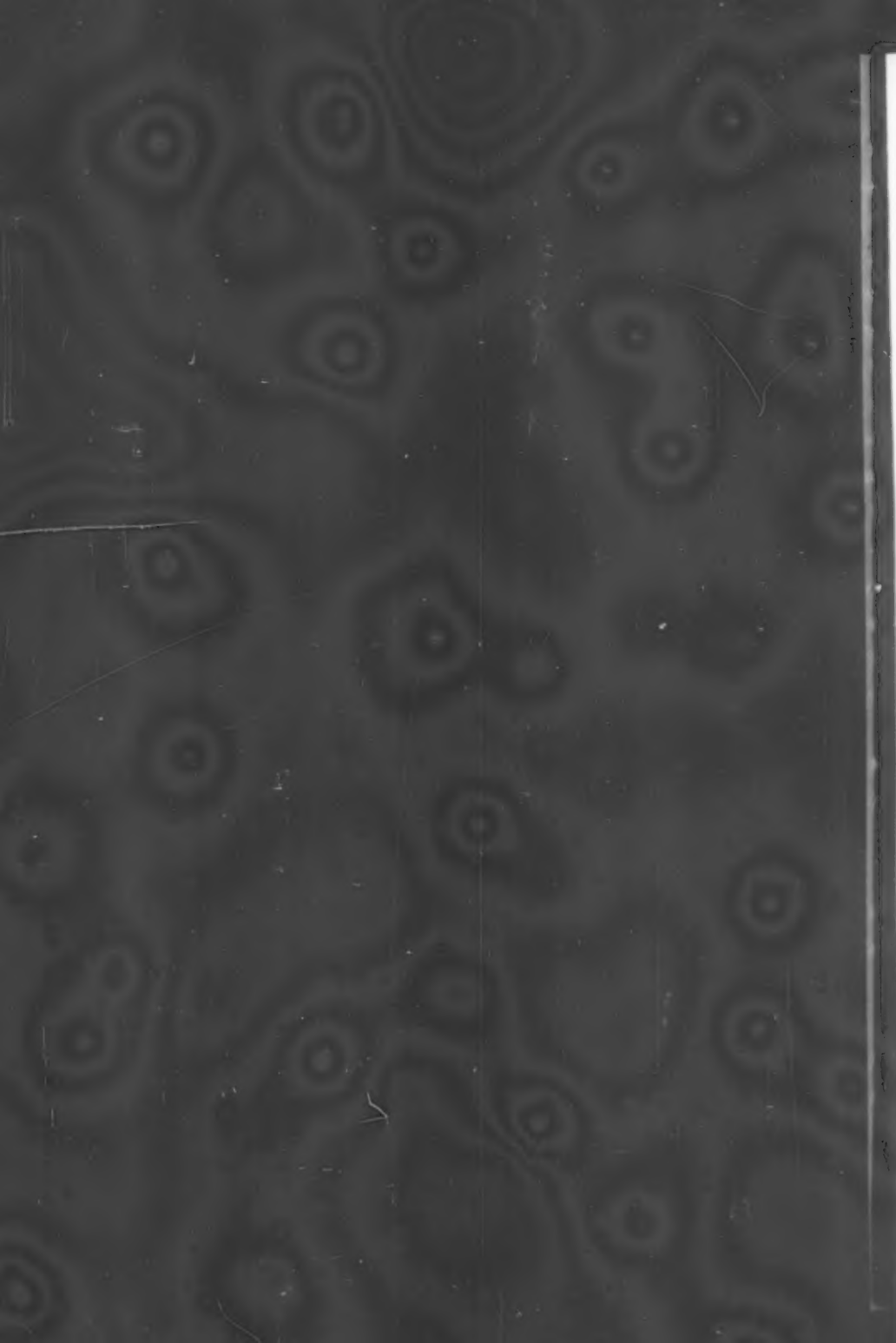
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Proceedings of the
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of the

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Sheraton-Park and Shoreham Hotels

Washington, D. C.

February 23-27, 1957

Convention Theme:

**OUR SECONDARY SCHOOLS—CITADELS FOR
PEACE AND FREEDOM**

DUE to the large number of participants on the program of the 41st Annual Convention of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, this issue of *THE BULLETIN* contains only a summary of each of the addresses and papers presented. These proceedings are divided into three parts: Part I, Discussion Groups; Part II, General Sessions; and Part III, Business Meeting.

THE National Association of Secondary-School Principals is a department of secondary-school administration of the National Education Association of the United States. It is the professional organization for all who are interested and engaged in the administration of secondary education. The Association publishes *THE BULLETIN* monthly, nine times during the school year (September to May) and *STUDENT LIFE* monthly, eight times during the school year (October to May). It sponsors the *National Honor Society*, the *National Junior Honor Society*, and the *National Association of Student Councils*. It conducts research studies in secondary education and has many services for members. Membership is eight dollars per year, payable to the Executive Secretary, PAUL E. ELICKER, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

The following pages contain a report of this Forty-first Annual Convention held at the Sheraton-Park and Shoreham Hotels, Washington, D. C., February 23-27, 1957.

The National Association of Secondary-School Principals does not necessarily endorse any individual, group, or organization or opinions, ideas, or judgments expressed in any of the papers encompassed in these proceedings.

Part I

Discussion Groups

HOW CAN WE PROVIDE AN ACTIVITY PROGRAM FOR ALL SENIOR HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS

CHAIRMAN: *Samuel M. Graves*, Principal, Wellesley Senior High School, Wellesley Hills, Massachusetts

DISCUSSANTS:

Rufus A. Brackley, Principal, East Greenwich High School, East Greenwich, Rhode Island

William S. Sterner, Associate Professor of Education, Rutgers University, Newark, New Jersey

Summary of the presentation made by ROBERT R. MARKS

THE pupil activity program is one of the most important areas of the curriculum. Forward-looking schools and communities no longer consider the program as extracurricular. Most modern school plants are being constructed with out-of-classroom as well as in-classroom activities in mind. These plants certainly created a better setting for the individualization of instruction. If the general purpose of an activity program is to provide opportunities for all pupils to develop further their interests, needs, and capacities, through participation in individual and cooperative group activities, then it necessarily follows that greater provision must be made within the plant for the individualization of instruction.

Since the principal has the authority and responsibility for the program, the success of it rests with him. If he is too liberal, too conservative, too narrow, or too dictatorial in his point of view toward the program, it will suffer directly. If he cooperatively administers and supervises the activities so that all concerned have a hand in purposing, planning, executing, and evaluating, then he will have opened the door for a greater percentage of participation by students.

Robert R. Marks is Principal of the Varina High School, Henrico County, Route 5, Richmond, Virginia.

This type of administration should also contribute to better school and community relations. There are numbers of opportunities for school and community citizens to participate in joint activities. For example, many booster clubs have students as members, too. Other joint activities include 4-H, American Red Cross, Alumni Day, Career Day, *etc.* Joint activities help students and patrons understand each other better, and each is then able to understand the activities of the other better.

All activities should be under the guidance and control of the school, and as rich and varied as necessary to include all students. There should be a central treasury for all organizations, with a treasurer for each organization. Regular monthly statements should be given. Another controlling factor is that each organization should develop objectives for the year, work toward those objectives, and evaluate their progress at frequent intervals. This is the area wherein the sponsor has her greatest responsibility. Those organizations without objectives, or which do not work toward those they do have, should be warned and finally eliminated. Each organization should be under the guidance and direction of a sponsor or sponsors.

Membership in any organization should be voluntary, and where possible, no dues should be allowed. Too often there are students who cannot afford the costs of membership. Elimination of this factor would allow a larger number to participate. Secret organizations should not be permitted, since the school would have no control over them.

Adequate time and space should be allotted for all activities, preferably on a regular schedule. Meetings are usually held within the school day. Practices are usually held outside school hours. Too often we are limited by lack of time after class hours within the school day, making it quite difficult for an adequate schedule to be made. Yet, if pupil activities are part of the curriculum, time should be available for them. Although the provision of space has already been mentioned in terms of the new school plant, it becomes more of a problem in older plants. It requires the ingenuity, hard work, and patience of principal, faculty, and students to find room for their activities.

Adequate counseling should be available to help students determine what activities they could best carry on and how many they should enter, and still have a chance to succeed in all other activities. The development of leadership through service should be a major criterion for helping students choose their activities wisely.

In summary, if an adequate program for all students is to be provided, there should be adequate facilities, democratic administration and supervision, satisfactory time and space allotment, voluntary memberships, no dues where possible, and efficient counseling. Such an atmosphere fosters the maximum growth and development of students toward adulthood in a democratic society.

Summary of the presentation made by ERIC H. JOHNSON

THERE is an assumption which underlies the title of this presentation which must be considered as a part of the material itself. The assumption is that desirable and important effects are associated with providing an activity program for all students at the senior high level. While this point is not to be discussed here, this assumption should be understood.

Regardless of any individual's persuasion about the importance of these student activities, an answer to the "how" of providing for this program is one requiring a number of specific conditions. The degree to which this "how" question may be answered is directly dependent upon the degree to which these conditions prevail. It is possible to list a number of these conditions, but for ease of presentation, I should like to propose three general areas and then subsume other specific points.

The three general areas are as follows: (1) balance, (2) schedule, and (3) guidance services. These are not listed in order of importance because it is not possible to separate one from another. If any one of these three conditions did not prevail to some degree in any senior high school, the achievement of a student activity program for all students would be an impossibility.

The term balance as used here may be thought of more specifically as the vertical and horizontal balance of the activities which are found in the school. The term horizontal is used to describe a condition in which there is a wide variety of activities within the program which can be used to challenge the needs, interests, and abilities of the total student body. This calls for a condition where one type of activity is not promoted at the expense of another. It is in recognition of the fact that we have a diverse population in our schools and that we need to recognize this in both formal and informal situations.

The condition of vertical balance calls for attention to the development of a variety of levels of activity within any given area. For example, in dramatics this would call for activities geared not only to the needs of the more capable student but also for activities geared to the needs of persons who have only a latent interest and possibly little ability in the area. It might call for several levels of activity within any area with these levels geared directly to the various levels of growth and development found in the student body.

There is a general requirement which applies to all three of the conditions which have been cited; that of support. In the first place, the development of a balanced program, defined as both horizontal and vertical,

Eric H. Johnson is Director of Illinois Curriculum Program at the University of Illinois in Urbana, Illinois.

will call for additional financial support. It is more expensive to support a broad program at several different levels than it is to support a narrow program at but a single level. In addition, support in terms of understanding on the part of a school and the community of a balanced program is an essential condition for making a student activity program available to all students.

The daily schedule is an important condition in providing student activities for everyone. In reality, a program does not exist for individual students unless it is available to them within the schedule. To put this another way, that part of the program of activities outside of the school day is immediately closed to a percentage of the student body. This problem of providing an adequate schedule is very close to the problem of staffing the school. If a program is to be made available for all students, it is essential that competent sponsors be secured. At the same time, the effort on the part of the staff in serving as sponsors of activities needs to be recognized as an important part of their teaching load. Achievement of a schedule which provides a student activity program for everyone is expensive and requires the same sort of support envisioned in the achievement of balance. Financial support is necessary as is support in terms of understanding on the part of a community.

The program of guidance services provides the key through which an available and a balanced program can be converted into experiences for individual students. Putting this on a list of the three necessary requirements for a program for all students indicates adherence to the proposition that students enter activities on the basis of their interests, needs, and abilities. It further assumes that the placement of students in an activity program is purposeful rather than accidental or incidental. It means that a student's total program is planned and not just the program in which he is scheduled in formal classes. There is another condition which always exists if the program of guidance services in general, and the counseling program specifically, is to operate in providing an activity program for all students. If this situation is to prevail, then the values to be achieved in an activity, the goals for that activity, and the behavior changes which are sought for must be designed and must be made known.

Again, the question of support applies to program of guidance services. More rather than less staff is needed and support in terms of understanding is an essential condition.

There are undoubtedly many specific points which have been omitted here and which would condition the development of an activity program to be made available for all senior high school students. In broad outline, however, these three areas constitute essential conditions that a school must achieve if an activity program for all students is to become a reality.

WHAT ARE RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN COLLEGE-ADMISSION POLICIES?

CHAIRMAN: *F. M. Peterson*, Superintendent of the Community High School, Pekin, Illinois; Chairman, Committee on School and College Relations, NASSP

DISCUSSANTS:

Dana M. Cotton, Director of Placement, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts

Harold Gray, Principal, Clover Park High School, Tacoma, Washington

Summary of the presentation made by OLIVER W. MELCHIOR

IN OUR day we have witnessed an unexampled burgeoning of demand for secondary education. We have already survived the first thrust of increased demand for higher education. A more staggering assault for admission to college lies immediately ahead. In such an era college admission policies have had to be overhauled and modified. They will have to be modified further and new techniques will have to be developed.

Some of the questions which are being raised concern the following: uniform school record blank, reliable indices of academic ability and promise, agencies for communication, selective admission, expansion of facilities, financial need, advanced standing and credit, and the importance of the individual in an era of expansion.

UNIFORM TRANSCRIPTS

The school record still remains as the most important single criterion for admission. The volume of these transcripts poses an increasing problem for schools and colleges. Standardization of this page of the college application is one of the logical steps which must take place. The School-College Relations Committee of the NASSP is working jointly with a comparable committee of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers to revise the NASSP Secondary-School Record form to make it even more widely acceptable.

Standardization of the method of computing class rank has received much attention and is to be hoped for. With the mobility of our population and especially that portion of it which is college bound, a common coinage becomes almost indispensable. While we glory in the advantages of decentralization of our educational structure and while we cherish our diversities, must we not agree on a common means of communicating the most essential data?

Oliver W. Melchior is Principal of the Scarsdale High School in Scarsdale, New York.

SCHOLASTIC APTITUDE

Increasing interest in reliable indices of ability to do school and college work is developing rapidly in some parts of the country, while other sections have had a generation of experience with such tests. The greatest danger lies in the misuse of such scores, but we shall have much more attention given to state-wide, sectional, and national testing programs to measure academic ability as well as achievement.

AGENCIES FOR COMMUNICATION

The Joint School-College Relations Committee of the NASSP and the American Association of College Registrars and Admission Officers is serving as one example of the endeavor to exchange ideas and to share problems. In addition to secondary school-record revision, this group is working on questions of pre-college guidance including a code of ethics for College Days, testing programs, advanced standing and credit, class rank, scholarship programs, multiple applications, and the like. They would appreciate your suggestions for further items for study.

Sectional and state groups as well as other organizations of national scope form the avenues through which the newer ideas must be implemented. The annual Colloquiums of the College Entrance Examination Board, such an organization as the Admissions Counselors of American Colleges, and numerous others are serving ably in diagnosing the problems and seeking solutions.

SELECTIVE ADMISSION

Those institutions which have been practicing selection before admission are faced with the question of whether to continue to select on the basis of class rank and test scores primarily or whether to endeavor to admit a representative class. This leads to severe problems of public relations when candidates of superior qualifications are rejected. Institutions which have admitted all candidates who meet the test of certification will have to expand their facilities enormously or practice selective admission. The former institutions have reduced freshman failure to less than five per cent in some cases. In the latter colleges where selection actually takes place during the freshman year, resulting in freshman failure as high as fifty per cent, the problem of waste of time as well as resources is a perplexing one.

EXPANSION OF FACILITIES

The American pattern is to meet the demand. This will be no less true in education, belatedly in many cases and at a sacrifice of luxuries, but the need will be met. It is heartening to read of the plans for a Dearborn campus of the University of Michigan. New York State has just announced plans for the establishment of ten new junior colleges. There are other examples and there will be more.

FINANCIAL NEED

Scholarship aid will have to be expanded greatly. Private philanthropies are doing what they can and our great corporations are playing a new role in this field. The National Scholarships are indicative. We will have to be sure that the recipients in our schools appreciate the value of such aid and do not come to expect such assistance as a right rather than a privilege.

ADVANCED STANDING AND CREDIT

Increasing attention will be given to providing challenges to our most gifted pupils. Early admission, advanced courses in high school leading to advanced standing and even advanced credit in college, enrollment of high-school seniors in part-time college courses on nearby college campuses are some of the devices which are in use. We must find the means to provide the gifted with opportunities that match their abilities. Education for all does not mean that all must have the same education.

IMPORTANCE OF THE INDIVIDUAL

As we face the problems of readjustment, we must avoid the pitfalls of mass education. Individuality has made America strong, and there must be scope for the individual to develop as he should. The new dimension to be added to the criteria for admission to college will almost certainly be to find a way to measure or forecast the motivation of the candidate. At present this is approached on a subjective basis only. Whether an objective method can be found is in dispute. At any rate, one of our prime responsibilities is to provide an education in which the student sees purpose and design and in which he can find an allegiance to learning for its own sake.

Summary of the presentation made by CLYDE VROMAN

CERTAIN conditions in our country are causing important changes in college admission policies. Our college-age population is expanding rapidly; an increasing proportion of high-school graduates are going to college; the search for our more able youth, supported by corporate scholarship funds, is bringing increased numbers of these better students to colleges; and students are staying in college longer for advanced education. As a result, colleges are being deluged with applications for admission, and we can expect the demand for a college education at least to double in the next decade.

Clyde Vroman is Director of Admissions at the University of Michigan in Ann Arbor, Michigan; and Chairman of the Committee on High School-College Relations, American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers.

COLLEGE FACILITIES

The alarming fact in American higher education is that we are not expanding our colleges and universities commensurate with the needs of our college-age population. Most independent or private colleges are either forced through lack of funds to remain at their present sizes or have chosen not to expand. This means that these independent institutions will provide a continually smaller proportion of the college education for American youth. Public or tax-supported colleges and universities are expanding considerably, but it is still a question whether adequate higher education facilities will be made available in each state. In some states there is talk about "exporting" more of their students to colleges in other states, while most of these other states are faced with the problem of reducing the proportion of out-of-state students to be admitted. This lack of college facilities is already causing changes in the admission policies and practices of many colleges and universities which are of vital importance to secondary schools.

TRENDS IN COLLEGE ADMISSIONS

The first and most obvious trend is that colleges are becoming more selective in their admissions. The college with a defined size of freshman class to be admitted finds itself with a larger number of applications and so it simply takes the best qualified students. The effect is higher admission standards. The public institutions vary in their practices. Some admit all high-school graduates, but a fair proportion of state supported colleges and universities have always had selective admissions and now are increasing their admission standards. The striking trend in most states is toward a variety of different kinds of colleges ranging from community colleges to universities, with each type of institution serving a unique role in the system of higher education. This is a wholesome trend. With such adequate facilities, principals can send their graduates to colleges which in terms of offerings and academic competition will be reasonable for each student. "Selective admissions" then may become truly "guided admissions."

A second very important trend is the increased use of standardized examinations, such as those of the College Entrance Examination Board, as a part of the admission process. More independent colleges and universities are now requiring the College Board tests as a condition of admission. Some state universities are requiring the College Board tests of out-of-state applicants, because these universities are receiving applications from more qualified students than they can admit and must find new ways to identify the best students. The use of the College Board tests in certain prominent national scholarship programs has increased the number of students taking the College Entrance Examination Board tests each year. Probably every high school which sends its graduates to colleges outside of its immediate area has students taking the College Board

examinations. These examinations are good and hold many possibilities for constructive guidance of college-going youth. It is crucial that every principal and his counselors be informed and skillful in the use of the results of the College Board tests, for they will play an increasing role in the transition from school to college in the decade ahead.

A third trend in college admission is toward the selection of students so as to insure such characteristics as geographic spread, variety of interests and achievements, and other qualities desired by the particular college.

Then, too, there are other trends such as increased use of interviews, more emphasis on academic preparation, more financial aid for worthy students, application fees, and requests for more personal information about applicants.

RECOMMENDATIONS

In the difficult decade ahead, it will be helpful if each high school will prepare a descriptive, factual statement about itself—the high school, the community, and the nature of the senior class, such as the intelligence level of the class, the numbers of graduates usually entering colleges, which colleges they entered, and how they succeeded in these colleges. In addition a duplicated one-page summary of the nature, strengths, weaknesses, and interests of each senior could be prepared to accompany his applications for admission to colleges. And finally, when a student applies to a college, the school, in addition to providing copies of the two statements above, should analyze and make recommendations about his readiness for the college to which he is applying. Principals who do these things will have better success in placing their graduates in preferred colleges.

Colleges likewise have a responsibility. Each college should furnish each applicant and his high school a statement of the nature and ability level of its typical freshman class, its admission standards, policies, and practices, and other information needed by the applicant.

With such information as suggested above, we can hope to have guided admission implemented by cooperation between secondary schools and colleges and executed with all possible fairness to students and their families.

IN CONCLUSION

The significance of the trends described above is that we must act quickly. It is not too late to take positive action toward the solution of our mutual problems. If we fail to take constructive action, we soon will find ourselves in real difficulty.

WHAT ARE EFFECTIVE WAYS OF EVALUATING THE SECONDARY SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *William N. McGowan*, Executive Secretary, California Association of Secondary-School Administrators, Berkeley, California

DISCUSSANTS:

Carl A. Jessen, Executive Secretary, Cooperative Study of Secondary-School Standards, Washington, D. C.

John J. Goldgruber, Principal, Wisconsin High School, Madison, Wisconsin

Summary of the presentation made by **LEE WILBORN**

AT THE present time the high-school population is about evenly divided between those who intend to terminate their formal education with high school and those who intend to continue their education in a college or university. The secondary school has a responsibility to meet the needs of both groups. There is no evidence that the situation will be so modified in the foreseeable future as to make obsolete any general plans undertaken now to care for both groups. While there is a considerable area in common, a high-school program designed exclusively, or even predominantly for either group will not meet the needs of the other. In determining what requirements a school system shall meet, we should make certain that it does in fact provide adequately for both groups.

With these observations, certain inferences seem inescapable. Instructional programs should be based upon the real and continuing needs of students, rather than upon the current limitations of a given school system and the shortage of qualified teachers in certain fields. This means that the curriculum of any high school must, in addition to providing the required units, provide a variety of courses that will insure that the needs of both college preparatory and non-college preparatory pupils will be met. For those pupils who are to continue their education in a college or university, the alternative should make available to them those courses they will need to become prepared adequately for the standard college curricula.

SELF-APPRAISAL AS A GUIDE TO SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT

Good teachers and good administrators are continually engaged in self-evaluative activities. They are willing to take a critical look at themselves and their work and take steps to bring about improvement. In most

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cases this activity has been confined to the individual, or, at most, to a small segment of the total school program. School districts which have engaged in a system-wide program of self-evaluation report improvement in such important segments of the program as increased staff interest in school objectives, higher teacher morale, increased ability to see individual contributions in terms of total program, stronger public relations, and many others. The question naturally arises as the self-evaluation begins, "By what standards are we to reach conclusions concerning the material collected?" Principles and standards for evaluation must be developed and properly approved and adopted to serve as the minimum basis for self-evaluation. Final evaluation should be made in terms of the local community. It is believed that the most important result will be an internal change in the abilities and attitudes of individuals participating in the study. Positive steps for improving instruction must be taken if the maximum value is to be derived.

GENERAL POINTS OF VIEW

The self-appraisal program is an evaluation of the instructional process and not of an individual. The program only is to be considered. To be successful, the study must not threaten the status of individuals. Information derived from self-evaluation should be for use by the local staff and school officials as the basis for professional improvement. The interpretation and use of data is a professional job, and individual staff members should use all information in a highly ethical manner. It should be a cooperative study in which every staff member—teachers, clerks, principals, and all—have a responsibility. It is the personal responsibility of all to cooperate actively.

SUMMARY OF PROCEDURES AND INSTRUCTIONS

Three factors will determine the extent of the success which the self-evaluation achieves. The first is a sound set of plans to guide the evaluation; the second consists of first-hand knowledge about the program—its purposeful approach to school improvement—and the third factor is the professional attitude on the part of those teachers and administrators who undertake it.

The self-evaluation process is considered a positive leadership approach to secondary-school evaluation. It is supported by minimum standards, and places no ceiling on school improvement or professional growth of staff.

Summary of the presentation made by RODERIC D. MATTHEWS

ALL secondary schools in the United States have had an opportunity to learn at first hand the effectiveness of the materials and procedures recommended by the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards during the past seventeen years and thousands of schools have availed themselves of this opportunity. Appearing first as part of an extension research project in 1936 the *Evaluative Criteria* has become well known throughout our country. It has also been used in many foreign countries. An Arabic edition, the latest in a series of foreign language editions, has been developed and tried out in Egypt.

A number of research studies have been completed which have measured the effectiveness of the Cooperative Study procedure and all that have come to my attention have presented favorable conclusions. One such study completed by Carl A. Newman at the University of Pittsburgh was designed to discover, by intensive methods, what happened to recommendations of visiting committees. Sixteen schools in Allegheny County were visited after an interval of at least two years had elapsed since the visit of the committee. In all there were 691 recommendations made by visiting committees of which 10.4 per cent were considered invalid because they conflicted with the philosophy of the school or were too vague and general to be acted upon. Favorable action had been taken on 67.6 per cent of the total and action was postponed on 22 per cent. In most cases, these postponements involved the need for funds which had not been provided in the approved budget. The best record was found in the pupil activity program where only 4.6 per cent of 130 recommendations were considered invalid and action had been taken or was being taken on 80.8 per cent. Many different approaches were used in carrying out the recommendations with group planning providing for 77, the principal 125, individual teachers 112, and the balance by counselors, librarians, and administrative personnel.

In preparation for the 1960 Edition of the *Evaluative Criteria* the summers of 1955 and 1956 were spent in visiting high school principals, state department representatives and university personnel in many parts of the United States. Almost without exception there was enthusiastic support given for methods and materials provided by the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards. There were many variations in how the materials were used but there was little if any variation in the belief that this type of evaluation had produced much that was good for secondary education.

As the first step in the revision process many associations and agencies have been asked to look at parts of the *Evaluative Criteria* in which they

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are interested. Suggestions for improving the instrument will be presented by committees established for this purpose by these groups. These suggestions will be studied by a small group to produce some uniformity of approach but it is not expected that radical changes will be made. The experience of seventeen years would seem to support the conclusions that general approval of the present materials and procedures has followed their use. The General Committee, representative of the regional accrediting associations, is responsible for the final approval of the manuscript. The 1960 Edition is expected to be available in June 1960.

WHAT SHOULD THE SCHOOL DO FOR ITS GIFTED AND TALENTED YOUTH?

CHAIRMAN: *Edward H. Redford*, Assistant Superintendent, Public Schools, San Francisco, California

DISCUSSANTS:

Dorothy M. Duval, Principal, Woodbourne Junior High School, Baltimore, Maryland

Neal Duncan, District Superintendent of Schools, Carl Schurz High School, Chicago, Illinois

P. J. Broen, Director of Elementary and Secondary Schools, State Department of Education, St. Paul, Minnesota

Summary of the presentation made by EUGENE H. VAN VLIET

AT A convention such as this we are anxious to share our ideas and to concentrate on the latest practice and the experience of the members of our National Association. It is not necessary, therefore, to spend much time on theory, except that we should have a mutual understanding of a workable definition for a particular school or school system. In general, most of us are using terminology developed and agreed upon as a result of experience in our studies at many of our schools of education throughout the country. Although we think of gifted pupils as those who are atypical in the academic subjects, they are generally well-rounded, of superior intellect, good readers and able to succeed better than ninety per cent of their peers where the main tools for success are the usual media of communication; namely, books, periodicals, printed matter and other material involving printed symbols and utilizing memorization and mental work. We think of talented youth as those pupils who are atypical in that they exceed ninety per cent of their peers in a specific area, not

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necessarily in the general areas and not necessarily areas involving reading and thinking exclusively. I believe it is necessary only to outline the basic parts of a program:

1. Provisions for the discovery of the gifted and talented youth.
2. Provisions to plan for their maximum development.
3. Willingness and ability to provide special programs.

In a typical secondary school large enough to provide various types of sectioning and various sections of the same subject on any given level, provision should be made so that gifted and talented youth have programs where they will meet the challenge of kindred minds and abilities. They likewise need a program which will give them the opportunity for leadership at their intellectual or talented level and not be constantly under the emotional tension of being the leader in every heterogeneous class. Provisions in terms of scheduling have been many and varied as far as New Jersey is concerned. A look at the reverse side of the coin indicates that legally we are required to make special provisions for the atypical child at the lower end of the intellectual and physical scale under the Beadleston Acts. It is only logical, therefore, that we make provision for the upper end of the scale. Our main purpose would be to give the same democratic opportunity for development to the bright student as we do the normal and the dull student. At the same time, we like to have the safeguard in our program, which will insure some heterogeneity. All pupils should have an opportunity, either in home room, in extracurriculum activities, in after-school programs, or in freedom of electives so that the danger of snobbishness would be eliminated and the opportunity of service might be provided. For this reason, some of us feel very strongly in favor of the comprehensive high school with special provisions for all students rather than special schools for special students.

Programs for gifted and talented pupils need not be confused with the single curriculum or the multiple-track system or approach. The single curriculum is generally interpreted as a course of study tailor-made for each student with certain few required courses, usually English, mathematics, science, health, and physical education. The multiple-track simply outlines for pupils' guidance the required courses within one particular curriculum, such as College Preparatory, Scientific, General, Agricultural, Practical Arts, *etc.* Regardless of what program is used, if there are sufficient numbers of sections, provisions can be made for gifted and talented youth.

In general, in the field of English, we need to provide opportunity for literary expression, for creative expression, journalism, modern literature, seminars, and so forth. In the field of social studies, we need to broaden our scope by means of seminars or more and more varied electives, especially on the upper levels. In the field of mathematics, we have a special problem in that we need to start earlier in building the founda-

tion for higher mathematics. This is true, likewise, in the field of foreign languages. In the field of science, we need to offer special project work within classes, special sectioning, and opportunities for advanced laboratory or research work. In the field of the so-called electives, we must constantly increase the number of our offerings in terms of our ability to finance classes.

One cannot think of making provision for gifted and talented youth in the senior high school without considering the junior high school and the fifth and sixth grades. Certainly by sixth grade we should have started our discovery of gifted and talented pupils. In the senior high school, because of the number of years of preparatory work necessary in such fields as mathematics, foreign languages, and science, we need to give thought to such things as combining seventh- and eighth-grade mathematics for those talented in the field of mathematics and mathematical manipulation. The junior high school does present special problems in view of the group sectioning or blocking, which is usually done in grades seven and eight. With the beginning of a program in the seventh and eighth grades, we can certainly make differentiation in the ninth grade as the size and finances of our schools permit.

Summary of the presentation made by MAHLON A. POVENMIRE

THERE are three general procedures by which schools meet the challenge of developing the abilities of their gifted students. These are enrichment, special grouping, and acceleration.

The high schools of the Greater Cleveland area are generally meeting this challenge by enrichment programs with some special procedures. In the Cleveland elementary schools, students with unusual potential are taught in special classes in the Major Work program, which emphasizes a broader scope and greater depth of study than in the regular grades. As a follow-up, special attention is given to these students in specified junior high schools. The records and recommendations of the elementary schools are sent to the guidance director so that a program can be planned to continue the students' training on a higher level. The senior high-school program for these pupils is carefully guided again in specified schools so that the courses they take lead to their goals. The Major Work supervisor follows these students not only through high-school graduation but also in work or college experiences after they leave school.

Shaker Heights High School in one of the suburban communities has an intensive mathematics program for gifted students who are given special grouping in a second-year algebra class at the beginning of their sophomore year. In the junior year, this group completes plane geometry

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in five six-week periods. This is followed by trigonometry, which is completed in November of the senior year; solid geometry, which lasts through February; and college algebra throughout the balance of that semester. Students from these classes take the advanced college placement examinations.

At Shaw High School in suburban East Cleveland there is a "Mr. Chips" type of teacher who is given special scheduled time to work with students on an optional basis in several of the major academic areas. A special reading room has been set up with research materials available. Students in all of the upper three grade levels have an opportunity to participate in this program, which is carried on in co-operation with other academic teachers.

At Euclid High School, also in the suburban area, there is a three-year program for interested students with an IQ of 130 and over. These students are under the direction of a full-time coordinator. During the sophomore year plane geometry, biology, and English are given in special classes of approximately twenty students each. In the junior and senior years, seminar groups are formed with special class instruction being given in English, advanced mathematics, United States history, and government. The coordinator interviews the parents before students are admitted to the program and works with other teachers who contact the group in their academic subjects.

Lakewood High School, which is a comprehensive high school of 1,450 students in the suburban area, has a program involving extensive course offerings and a wide variety of extracurricular activities. There are 130 semester subjects offered, which permit educational guidance counselors to tailor make a course for each student. A kind of natural segregation allows teachers in certain fields to step up the offerings, particularly in the advanced courses. Over twenty-five per cent of the students have been electing physics, and fifteen per cent four years of mathematics. These pupils have the incentive of meeting the increasing competition for admission into the colleges of their choice. Over sixty per cent of the graduates have been enrolling in colleges, with many of these students achieving positions of leadership on the various campuses. One National Merit Scholarship was included in the seventy-two scholarships to colleges and universities earned by last year's class of 396 members.

Several procedures are used to encourage able students to do excellent work rather than be satisfied with mediocre achievement. These include honoring, by special assemblies, those students who have been cited for superior work, publicizing honor and merit roll students, using scholarship as one measure for election to the National Honor Society, and naming the outstanding student in each of the thirteen departments of the school at the annual Honor Day program held in May.

While we normally consider the gifted students to be those in the upper ten to fifteen per cent of the classes who have an IQ of over 120,

there are some whose special talents lie in the non-academic phases of the program. Outstanding students in art, for example, have been placed in desirable positions in commercial art following their graduation. Others find challenging experiences in the musical organizations which involve half of the students of the school and in the dramatic group which presented *Cyrano de Bergerac* as one of their presentations last year.

Participation in extracurricular activities is an important part of the general education of the gifted as well as other high-school students. Pupils in the gifted group carry major responsibilities in the many phases of the activity program of the school. Those on the staffs of the weekly newspaper and annual, both consistent winners of national honors, have thorough educational experiences. There are many challenging responsibilities in the student council and in the forty curricular, religious, and service clubs of the school. For example, members of the Newton Society perform experiments beyond the regular activities in the science classes. One student has combined skill in glass blowing with knowledge of chemistry in the construction of an apparatus for the study of ionization of gases.

Resources of the metropolitan area provide many possibilities for enrichment of the program. These include resource speakers, opportunities for exploratory summer employment, field trips, and volunteer service. Approximately ten per cent of our senior class each year give service through the Junior Volunteer program of the Cleveland Welfare Federation.

It is possible for those students with ability who are anticipating an extended college residence for professional preparation to be graduated from the senior high school in two years by carrying five subjects each semester and attending two summer sessions. These students must maintain a "B" average to qualify for this accelerated program. However, we do not encourage this procedure because we feel that the gifted as well as other students needs the opportunity for leadership and exploratory experiences made possible by a full-length high-school course.

Large high schools with effective guidance programs, extensive course offerings, and activity programs, reasonably small class loads for teachers, and adequate physical facilities can do an effective job of meeting the needs of their gifted students.

WHAT ARE THE ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF TEACHER MERIT-RATING PLANS?

CHAIRMAN: *Bright E. Greiner*, Principal, Espanola High School, Espanola, New Mexico

DISCUSSANTS:

Mary R. Jeffery, Principal, Shaler High School, Glenshaw, Pennsylvania

Robert A. Martin, Principal, Mariemont High School, Cincinnati, Ohio

Summary of the presentation made by SAM P. WIGGINS

THE odd truth about merit rating for teachers is that it is both imperative and impossible. It is imperative if we are to accord teachers fair treatment, if we believe that teaching varies in quality, and if we believe in compensation commensurate with the effectiveness of classroom teachers. Yet the matter of measurement of this effectiveness in any objective and absolute sense is a clear cut impossibility. Perhaps it is because of this paradox of necessity and futility that we so quickly align ourselves on the issue. We take either the position that it is the only equitable course of action or that it is a practical impossibility, and we get stuck with our either-or position. If we are not careful, the less tenable, the more precarious, our stuck position comes to be, the more desperate and verbally violent we are likely to become to bolster ourselves against conceding and even losing face.

I, too, am a victim of this either-or disease of taking a position and being stuck with it, but I shall essay to defend my bias with due charity to those opposing my view. This is my only safe course of action, since those opposing my position, if this audience is a cross section of American sentiment, are in an overwhelming majority.

The fact is appalling that so little useful research is available to guide our action regarding merit rating. More appalling, however, is the number of self-styled authorities who have such strong feelings about the matter that, even in professional literature, their biases are expressed as if they were facts. I shall, therefore, to avoid this same temptation, state my bias, so labelled, and proceed to give some support for it.

Despite the limitations of merit rating, despite some of its failures, despite some of the ulterior motives that may have prompted its sporadic acceptance, despite its critics who disdainfully lambast it as being undemocratic, despite the prospect that we are not ever likely to achieve an ideal rating plan, I am fully convinced that we would be something short of professional if we abandoned our efforts.

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Forward looking merit rating programs give evidence that we can improve our fairness in recognition and treatment of teachers if we persist at the task of studying, cautiously and thoroughly, the possibilities and safeguards of merit rating. The states of Utah and California give live and current evidence of the prospects in favor of merit-rating plans. Three Utah districts, where more than eighty per cent of the teachers voted (secretly) to experiment with merit rating, gave the lie to those administrators who profess to "know," by instinct or intuition, that teachers do not want merit rating. The cities of Cincinnati, Ohio, and Lexington, Massachusetts, have demonstrated convincingly that merit rating and cooperative evaluation need not be ideological enemies. They can live and thrive together. Witness, as evidence, the large extent to which California school districts have adopted features of the Cincinnati plan.

It is not in the best traditions of public education to abandon a promising pattern of action despite a number of misfires and misapplication of basic principles. Seventy-three school districts recently reported, in a sample exploratory survey in Utah, successful merit rating programs in operation. Three hundred districts in California are currently employing cooperative personnel policies which emphasize locally developed patterns of action.

It is well to reveal the motives of some of the advocates of merit rating, as representatives of the American Federation of Teachers have adroitly done. It might be enlightening to identify, as well, a few of the motives of those who wish to hold the line against merit rating. If I opposed further consideration of merit rating, I might oppose it for such reasons as these:

1. If a school administrator, I might like to keep out of trouble. I might prefer the safe comfort of custom and tradition to the cross-fire resulting from agitating for change—even promising change.

2. If a supervisor of instruction, I might be suspicious of the administration's potential increase of control over teachers. Yet, I would be unwilling to rate teachers because that would reduce my effectiveness in working with them.

3. I might prefer to "pass the buck" to college authorities and state departments of education who train and certificate teachers in "rating" them rather than accepting a portion of the responsibility myself.

4. I already have enough other worthy educational projects pressing for my attention without volunteering for an additional one.

Some of these reasons are good and partially defensible ones. Yet, in the last analysis, a policy opposed to further study of merit-rating values is operating on the assumption that college courses, subjective and highly artificial in measuring ultimate teacher success, are more accurate bases for determination of salary alone, than when modified by direct and tangible measures of teaching success on the job. I cannot accept this kind of thinking. That is the basic reason for my conviction that we must keep at the job of improving merit rating rather than abandoning it.

Although the task is of mountain-climbing magnitude, I am of the firm belief that we must act in keeping with the motto that reads, "The difficult we do right away. The impossible takes a little longer."

Summary of the presentation made by JOSEPH M. JOHNSTON

IT IS relatively simple to make a list of the advantages and disadvantages of teacher merit-rating plans. The *pros* and *cons* of this issue have been debated over the years, and plans for rating have been tried with varying degrees of success in many school systems. It is much harder to arrive at any definite conclusion concerning the need or the merit of any of these rating plans for teachers.

Those who argue for a merit-rating system present such points as: teaching will be improved if teachers are rated, higher salaries will result for many teachers, the professionalization of the teacher's calling will result from such rating, the teacher will be motivated for self-examination and self-improvement, the supply of teachers will increase, the value received from the expenditure of each educational dollar will be increased, the community's respect for the individual teacher and for the profession as a whole will improve, teachers will receive a reward far more commensurate with the job they do than is now the case, and teacher rating plans will tend to increase the amount of money which the public will invest in education.

On the other hand, the opponents of the merit-rating system argue that it will increase hostility between teachers and supervisors and administrators, that it will cost more to initiate and implement than it can ever be worth, that teaching is an art which cannot be measured statistically, that teachers will be unwilling to help each other, that teachers are individuals who teach different pupils and different subjects and cannot be measured by the same yardstick, that it will cause a form of class distinction within the teaching profession, that merit-rating will not necessarily improve the economic status of teachers, that such a system is difficult to administer, that teachers themselves do not see any particular merit in a rating system, that it will not eliminate the poor teacher, and that it cannot, by itself, increase the supply of teachers to any appreciable extent.

Although from this listing of the advantages and disadvantages of merit-rating plans, it might be construed that the weight of evidence or argument is against them, but they cannot, on this basis, be considered out of hand. Neither can they be accepted without some critical thinking and searching examination. It would appear that the very first thing to be done would be to set up a list of conditions under which a merit-rating

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plan could possibly operate successfully. Under these conditions the plan could then be made operative, and the results of that operation could be studied with a view to discovering if such a plan was workable. Some of the conditions which ought to be met would be: merit rating must be acceptable to the teachers upon whom it is to be used, all school personnel must be the subject of rating, teachers must have a hand in developing the system, merit must be clearly and exactly defined, the rating system must be capable of continual revision, teachers must be rated on those items which would tend to discriminate between the various levels of teaching from the poor to the superior, and it should be used for more than a basis for salary increments.

Merit rating plans are the subject of much heated discussion, and in many cases the discussion tends to throw out more heat than light. The whole subject must be examined dispassionately if the individual teacher and the profession as a whole is to benefit from any discussions of this topic.

WHAT ARE RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN PLANNING, CONDUCTING, AND EVALUATING EXTENDED SCHOOL TRIPS?

CHAIRMAN: *Lee O. Garber*, Professor of Education, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

DISCUSSANTS:

George S. McCague, Principal, Newton Falls High School, Newton Falls, Ohio

John K. Schroeder, Principal, York High School, York Village, Maine

P. A. Samuelson, Principal, Edison High School, Minneapolis, Minnesota

Summary of the presentation made by PAUL F. DAVIS

INTEREST among high schools concerning the exchange program whereby a group of pupils from one school makes an extended visit to another school in an entirely different section of the country is growing rapidly. With Manatee High School now in its fifth exchange, 150 pupils have extended their horizons, broadened their experiences, and received an entirely new concept of what it means to be an American boy or girl.

The school and school exchange should not be confused with the "senior trip to Washington" or similar excursions usually initiated by a transportation company. The pupils spend a full year in preparation and planning which is climaxed by the visit to the exchange school.

Paul F. Davis is Principal of the Manatee County High School in Bradenton, Florida.

Thirty pupils—15 boys and 15 girls—from the eleventh and twelfth grades are paired with an equal number from the exchange school. Selected by a faculty committee in the spring of the year, on the basis of written applications, school records, and ability to meet the qualifications set up, the pupils and parents are organized with officers and committee chairmen for each group. During the vacation period several fund raising activities are held with both the parents and pupils participating with the advice and help of the two faculty leaders.

In selecting the pupils, an effort is made to get a cross section of the pupils. Social or financial status does not enter into the picture except that the parents are willing and able to assume the financial responsibility over and above what the group may raise, and—we consider this most important—the home must be one in which any of us would be willing for our own son or daughter to be a guest. For the past two years our group of 30 pupils has met as a class in social studies for the first semester with one-half-unit credit. Taught by one of the faculty sponsors, the pupils first study their own community and state so that they should be able to answer the many questions which they will be asked on their visit. They then try to learn all they can about the host school, community, and state so that they may be able to ask intelligent questions. Guest speakers who are from the community to be visited are often asked to talk and hold conferences with the group.

This class also serves as a median to knit the group more closely together, to work out rules of conduct, settle any behavior problems before they occur; and in every way complete the plans both for the trip and for the return visit of the guests.

At least one full week is spent at the host school, visiting classes, attending conferences, seeing places of historical interests, and living in the homes of their new friends. The program of the week will vary according to the type of school and community visited, the climate and the imagination of the school leaders.

Since so much of the historical background of our nation is laid in the New England area, we have found that this section is one of the most profitable for us to visit. The boys and girls get to see some of the many places and things about which they have been reading and studying in history and literature all their lives. They find that these are real places. The cost is not too high, and opportunity is given for a full day in Washington on the return trip. Our first exchange was with Newton High School, Newton, Mass., where we learned much about the exchange idea, as Newton was one of the early pioneers in the field. Other visits have been made to Arlington Heights, Illinois; Lockwood, R. I.; and to Idaho Falls, Idaho. This year Concord, Mass., is our exchange school.

Considered one of the most valuable of the exchange experiences is the meeting held near the end of the week when the host parents together with both groups of students come together to talk over and evaluate

the activities. Divided into groups of ten or twelve with an interested faculty member serving as moderator, the whole exchange program is gone over, discussed, and, insofar as possible, the ideas are put down on paper. Practically without exception the parents have been enthusiastic over what has happened to their son or daughter as a result of being a member of the group. In many cases the parents have fallen in love with their guest and would like to keep him or her. Visits the following year attest to the fact that lasting friendships are made.

Community acceptance of the exchange program has been almost universal. Practically the only criticism is that it should be made available for more students. This, of course, can be said of many of our high-school activities. However, through various school activities, assembly programs, the student council, an effort is made to share the exchange experience with the entire student body. Last, but possibly not least, is a concomitant value: thirty sets of parents, many of them total strangers a few months ago, now know each other and have become good friends.

Summary of the presentation made by F. C. THOMAS

THERE is no magic formula for good behavior which a group of students possess who are engaged in an extensive tour to the great national shrines and historical places of interest in our country. To sum it up briefly, one must know what purposes he has in mind when planning a tour and then plan everything in advance, if good behavior is to be achieved and a great educational experience received by the students.

We describe our annual fifteen-day senior class tour through the eastern part of the United States as "A Post Graduate Course in Educational Travel and Human Relationships." We leave the day after school closes in June. It is an introduction to adulthood which bridges the gap between the formal, controlled teacher-centered, textbook-guided classroom situation and the informal self-discipline democratic responsible environment of adulthood. It is an experience in democratic, cooperative living. Personal and group problems become the subject matter for the group-learning experiences which are not found between the covers of the textbooks or within the walls of the classroom. Visits to our great national shrines deepen the appreciation of our American heritage and what it means to be an American citizen.

Tours should be planned so that students assume the major responsibilities for the tasks and the discipline of the group, otherwise the objectives mentioned above cannot be achieved.

Four sponsors take our 100 or more students on the fifteen-day tour, traveling in the capacity of counselors, friends, and advisors, rather than

F. C. Thomas is Superintendent of Schools in Barrington, Illinois.

as policemen. A definite set of rules and suggestions has been developed out of our years of experience in this work. Students study these rules with their parents in advance of the tour and both subscribe to the fact that the student will abide by the rules. It is highly important that the parents carefully counsel with and prepare the student for the tour by discussing the rules and the opportunities and responsibilities which the tour holds for each young person.

Five important committees are designated by the students to volunteer for membership on these committees. The most important committee is the Rules Committee, whose chief responsibility is to interpret the rules to any member of the class who might be tempted to do things that would not be in keeping with the reputation of the group.

The Transportation Committee is responsible for loading and unloading the bags, for obtaining cars and parent drivers for the cars when more than two buses are necessary, painting signs for the buses, *etc.*

The Itinerary Committee prepares a booklet entitled *Let's Go East*, which contains a detailed itinerary illustrated with cartoons, the rules and suggestions, clothing suggestions, and a foreword by the Superintendent, who sponsors the tour.

The Publicity Committee writes all correspondence necessary to make advance arrangements with hotels, museums, and other places where the group visits. It also prepares newspaper articles for local and neighborhood papers, in advance of the tour and while en route. The committee reports each day's activities to the home newspaper. This committee also is responsible for recording the tour through moving pictures, *etc.*

The Ways and Means Committee sponsors activities throughout the year to earn money for the tour. Approximately \$3500 is earned by the class from the proceeds of a rummage sale, several bake sales, concession at athletic games, and proceeds from school plays and magazine sales, all legitimate income producing activities.

Sponsors who can create and maintain high moral and good group attitudes are very important. Faculty members must believe in and trust young people, they must possess good judgment in all associations and relations with them, must have a good sense of humor and terrific physical stamina. They must be sensitive to human needs, must be aware when students get homesick and need cheering up, must be able to reassure timid ones and to point out to the chronic complainer that their discordant comments can spoil things for everyone. We rotate our sponsors each year in order that they might too enjoy the sightseeing, obtain great lessons from this tour, and experience this new relationship between teachers and students which occurs on a tour of this nature.

We try to include as wide a variety of places and experiences in our tour as can be done within the limits of time and finance. We visit the Old South at Richmond, Virginia, early Colonial America at Williams-

burg, our National Capital with its multitude of patriotic shrines and government buildings and monuments; the cradle of liberty at Philadelphia, Fort McHenry at Baltimore, the great metropolitan city of New York including the United Nations, New England at Boston, the Berkshire Mountains, and travel through Canada, a foreign country, on our return. We place emphasis on spiritual activities, scenery, culture, travel, etc.

Time after time, parents comment that their young people return home noticeably more mature, more humble, more poised, responsible, and appreciative of home, parents, and community. They are more sympathetic, tolerant, understanding, patient, friendly, and patriotic citizens. They value most highly not only the wonderful things they have seen and done, but also the association with each other, the cooperative experience they have had together, and the deep understandings and sincere appreciations they have acquired on this tour.

HOW CAN WE PROVIDE EFFECTIVE COUNSELING SERVICES FOR STUDENTS IN THE JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS?

CHAIRMAN: *Max W. Barrows*, Deputy Commissioner of Education, State Department of Education, Montpelier, Vermont

DISCUSSANTS:

Harvey A. Heintzelman, Counselor, Occupational Information and Guidance, State Department of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania

I. B. Bryant, Principal, Booker T. Washington High School, Houston, Texas

Summary of the presentation made by **STANLEY H. LORENZEN**

THE topic assigned for discussion today is more than an academic question. It is generally conceded that the primary source of good guidance personnel is from the ranks of the superior teacher. While the supply of superior teachers dwindles in proportion to the ever increasing need, it becomes increasingly difficult to justify taking from this group those people necessary to provide the counseling services to which our secondary pupils are entitled.

LONG-RANGE VIEW NECESSARY

If we are convinced at the outset of the importance of the counselor in the secondary school, and have recently felt the frustration either of trying to replace one or of finding an additional counselor to maintain

Stanley H. Lorenzen is Principal of the Staples High School in Westport, Connecticut.

practical student-counselor ratios, then do we realize how important it has become for the secondary-school principal to involve himself in the problem of directing the right young teachers into counselor training programs.

We must look ahead five years for that is about what it takes for a teacher trained in subject matter to begin, on a part-time basis, to get the formal courses and internship necessary to qualify for even the simplest counseling assignment. Every principal should be encouraging enough people on his staff with the proper personal qualifications to pursue training in guidance and counseling so that he can maintain a ratio of not over one counselor to 350 students in a four-year school and one to 250 in a three-year school. The lower ratio is made necessary by the shorter time (25% less) the counselor has to work with his counselees.

PRINCIPAL MUST SUPERVISE COUNSELORS AS WELL AS TEACHERS

If the secondary-school administrator accepts the role of his counseling staff as an extension of the personal guidance the principal was once able to do in days of simpler educational formulae and problems, he must also accept the responsibility of personal leadership in the program. To my mind this is the last area of administration he should delegate to a department head. He must learn how to know what his counselors are doing. He must know them so well he can predict how they would react to a given problem, yet he must not be so inflexible as to expect a counselor to clear with him before making a decision or recommendation. One way this can be accomplished is for the principal to hold frequent (perhaps monthly) departmental discussions with the counselors. This is a time for evaluation, a charting of new directions and new emphases, and an opportunity for the administrator to know more intimately the thinking of his right and left hands—his counselors. The counselors will respond by being more confident and more secure in their knowledge that they are in tune with the team.

THE PITFALLS OF POOR COUNSELING RECORDS

During a period of organization, reorganization, or expansion of a guidance department, it is essential that there be emphasis upon an effective system of counseling records. Reference is not made here to the usual cumulative or permanent record, but rather to the detailed and chronological notes kept by a counselor to indicate the important outcomes and problems encountered in his interviews. These notes, or "Interview Reports," should be reviewed regularly by the principal so that he may know how the department or any individual counselor is operating. It is from these reports that the principal can note strengths that need sharing and weaknesses that need attention. A further use of these notes or reports is to furnish excellent case study material. Not to require the preparation of such data is to encourage patterns of careless counseling.

THE PITFALLS OF CLERICAL DETAIL

With the development of guidance departments has come the transfer of much of the clerical detail formerly the responsibility of the administrative office plus an inevitable increase in such detail associated with improved personnel services. Without attempting to analyze the desirable and undesirable characteristics of such detail, it may be observed that all too frequently the transfer is made without an accompanying transfer or provision for clerical assistance. Too many guidance departments are floundering under an excessive clerical load with no one except the counselors to perform it. The false economy in these situations is all too apparent. The frustrations and blocks to professional growth, which it produces, are more subtle but more damaging.

A WAY OUT THROUGH IN-SERVICE-TRAINING

In the early stages of organization of a guidance department, a decision will have to be made relative to counselor assignment. Will the counselor specialize in kinds of guidance such as educational, vocational, personal-social? Will counselors pick up an incoming class and stay with it throughout the school experience of that class? Will the students be passed along to a new set of counselors each year who specialize in the problems of that grade? There is much to be said in support of either procedure although I favor the process of counselors proceeding along with a class, helping them to make wise decisions as the problems of increasing maturity unfold. It has the virtue of being developmental and lends itself to a dynamic and creative form of in-service training. Under this system, new and inexperienced counselors can begin with the students in a realm of relative simplicity in many phases of guidance.

Here course electives are set at a minimum, vocational choices and career patterns are elastic, the maze of College Board examinations and college selection is still far enough off so as to give the counselor at least time to evaluate the records of the student and possibly see him once or twice. The student learns to associate the counselor with problems, and a pride and rapport can be developed to a surprisingly high degree.

Such a system forms a rational basis for the twelfth-grade counselors to pass on to their eleventh-grade colleagues things learned, problems encountered, and solutions indicated. The principal should participate in these sessions; yes, he should play a leadership role in such a process. How better to keep close to the vital heart of his school? Every counselor will have his own pet specialties and should be allowed and encouraged to take the lead in bringing the latest research and techniques before the other counselors.

EVALUATE THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM DURING IN-SERVICE TRAINING

During recent evaluation sessions with his guidance staff, the writer was amazed at the degree to which he had allowed the clerical burden to im-

pair the effectiveness of the total guidance program. By frank discussion it was brought out that, when compared to other departments, labor saving machinery was almost non-existent. The practicality and economy of using dictating machines to save time in recording interviews was established. The necessity of saving time in the annual programming of students in new courses was made evident. It was demonstrated that as much as twenty per cent of a counselor's time was devoted to advising in course selection. Several practical suggestions for streamlining this process were suggested which may result in savings of as much as fifty per cent of the time devoted to this task without loss in effectiveness.

COUNSELORS WORK WITH TEACHERS, PARENTS TOO

Finally, I would like to point out that in the final analysis much of the effectiveness of a guidance program is dependent upon the attitudes of the classroom teacher toward the program and the counselor. Too often this attitude may be summed up by the teacher who remarked, "What good does it do to send a kid to guidance? When I do, I get the kid back with the same problem I sent him with." This indicates a lack of communication between counselor and teacher which can be corrected, in part, by case conferences.

The weakness of most case conferences is that they usually are scheduled after school when personnel are tired and harried. Ways must and can be found to schedule these conferences during the school day. The loss in teaching time must be compensated for in terms of the effectiveness of the conference. This is dependent upon the preparation made by the counselor and the leadership he is able to exert during the conference.

In increasing the effectiveness of counselors, in working with parents, it is suggested that one evening per week be set aside so that working parents may find it convenient to confer with counselors. Developments in the guidance program in elementary schools has opened up the whole area of teacher-counselor-parent conferences. From the literature in this field, the principal can bring to his staff increased concern for this vital element of increased effectiveness of counseling services.

Summary of the presentation made by ANDY TOLSON

IN ORDER to best answer the question asked in the title of my presentation, I am cognizant of the fact that this question is being asked by many in our nation. A number of school systems throughout our country have programs that have answered the question. I report about a program which I think is a very successful one.

Andy Tolson is Principal of the Tucson High School in Tucson, Arizona.

In the Tucson Public Schools, the three high schools and seven junior high schools have used as a guide for the program of guidance and counseling the following objectives: (1) to assist in personalizing the educational process, giving the satisfactory mutual adjustment of the school and the student; (2) to assist young people to discover their vocational, physical, educational, social, emotional, and moral needs and to aid them in meeting these needs; (3) to provide the student with experiences in the practice of making decisions.

To implement these objectives, counselors are provided on the basis of one counselor for 300 students. Each of the seven junior high schools have two counselors and the High Schools have from five to twelve.

In providing office or cubicle space for the counselors, it is recognized that they should be as near as possible to the registrar's office. In old buildings, one or two classrooms were divided into areas large enough for a desk, metal file cabinet, and two or three chairs. Half-wood and half-glass partitions were used to section off these spaces. As new buildings are constructed, suites for the counseling department have been a part of the planning.

Faculty members with training and experience are chosen for counselors. Each counselor has a teaching assignment of two periods and spends four periods in the office.

All student registration is done by the counselors, whether held in the spring, or during the month of August. If registration is carried on in August, students make appointments in July to meet their counselors at the appointed time in August. In the high schools, the counselor has students from the four grades, distributed about equal, and each student remains with the same counselor for the four years.

A planned program of testing is carried on in the seventh and eighth grades so that, by the time the student reaches the ninth grade, an adequate accumulative record folder is available for reference by the counselor. As new students enroll, testing is arranged as soon as possible if transcripts do not indicate test results.

The high schools in the Tucson system are all comprehensive schools. Between twenty and fifty per cent of the graduates go to college. The counselor works closely with the parents and the student in the choice of subject matter and plans for college. To aid in this area is a very complete library of university and college catalogs located in the reception room of the counseling and guidance department.

To aid in the counseling of those who do not plan on college, a file of job opportunity pamphlets are available. A secretary acts as receptionist, takes care of all correspondence for the department, supervises the library and files, and keeps accumulative records up-to-date. The results of this very fine program is better attendance, better scholarship, and better preparation for the American Way of Life.

IN WHAT WAYS MAY THE PRINCIPAL AND THE FACULTY PROMOTE WHOLESOME SCHOOL MORALE?

CHAIRMAN: *J. L. Cobb*, Principal, Newport High School, Newport, Kentucky

DISCUSSANTS:

James T. Brockman, Principal, Lee's Summit High School, Lee's Summit, Missouri

Paul M. Mitchum, Assistant Superintendent and Director of Secondary Education, Public Schools, Wilmington, Delaware

Summary of the presentation made by ALEXANDER A. MACKIMMIE, JR.

IN OUR democratic society it has been generally recognized that good morale is one of the vital factors in the success of any enterprise involving people. Business and industrial concerns are keenly aware of the importance of establishing strong morale in their organizations and have devoted considerable time and money to developing effective personnel policies and relationships. American education also functions in the same democratic society and must be able to create healthy morale on the part of both teachers and students if it is to achieve its objectives. Our leaders have accepted this point of view with the result that our schools are probably unique in the emphasis that they give to this area.

Before discussing ways in which wholesome morale may be promoted in our schools, we should consider briefly just what, in the way of atmosphere and attitudes, we are seeking to develop. The dictionary definition is a good place to start. "Morale—condition as affected by or dependent upon such morale factors as zeal, spirit, hope, confidence." Here we have our listings of the attributes and qualities that are basic to the building of morale. It then becomes our task to make these an integral part of the lives of our staffs and student bodies to the end that they will work together with enthusiasm and perseverance toward the common goal of the maximum growth of all students both in intellect and personality.

The quest for good morale in a school must start with the professionals—administration and faculty. High morale can be fostered only in a climate where good will, mutual respect, understanding, and trust prevail. It is the major responsibility of administration to establish and maintain this environment. When leadership has done its best to provide the proper setting, then the teachers assume the key role. Their educational and personal philosophies and their skill in handling personnel problems will, in large measure, determine the level of school

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morale. When the faculty as a group is genuinely concerned with the welfare of students and shows a friendly interest in them as individuals and in their activities, co-curricular as well as curricular, the way is open to working directly with the student body.

There are undoubtedly several ways of approaching the building and strengthening of sound and wholesome morale of student groups. One that can be effective is through capitalizing on two strong desires of adolescents—to receive recognition and to be treated as mature individuals. The remainder of this paper will deal with some considerations and methods that may be of value in making this type of approach to the problem.

The first essential is to get across somehow to youngsters the feeling that they really matter, that what they do and think is important, that they are fundamentally good citizens, enjoy the respect of their elders, and that, as a group and as individuals, they have a tremendous potential. How is this done? It is difficult to blueprint, yet it is the cornerstone of student morale. Basically it results from the type of administrative-faculty attitude already cited in a previous paragraph. It stems from the total staff's genuine understanding of and sincere interest in young people. We who work with them must believe these things about them and act accordingly. It is as simple as this, but it cannot be produced by any formula or hocus pocus.

Once youngsters have gained this feeling of self-respect, the next stage involves developing pride in themselves and their accomplishments. Insofar as is possible, each individual must be brought to identify himself with the school. Its successes and failures must become his. This is where the wise use of the old devices of praise and blame can be employed most effectively. Prompt and sincere recognition on the part of all staff members of jobs well done both by groups and by individuals pays dividends. It is also important that school authorities be equally alert in making judicious use of censure when it is deserved. Teenagers expect to be called for their mistakes and short-comings. In working on this aspect of morale, it should be remembered that from the pride of ownership and belonging comes loyalty. This brings us to the point where we can focus attention on old traditions and the building of new ones. The values established by their predecessors can be made appealing to adolescents. The "glorious achievements of the Old Blue" will call forth response from the current tenants of the "hallowed halls."

At this point it is important to recognize the probably obvious fact that, to be effective, morale must be active, not passive, and that the attainment of the student attitudes we have been considering does not occur in a vacuum. They can be developed and promoted only through understanding and participation. Both administration and teachers must be involved in these processes, but it is essential that the principal be able and willing to accept the responsibility for leadership. He alone can estab-

lish the patterns which will assure a thorough understanding of school policies, regulations, problems, and administrative decisions. It is this understanding on the part of everyone that is the nucleus in the creation of wholesome morale. This calls for making use of the techniques of democratic administration. It means taking time through all available media—assemblies, faculty meetings, bulletins, faculty and student councils, and conferences with individual faculty and student leaders to insure that all major matters affecting the welfare of the school are thoroughly talked through.

It means further that this matter of communication becomes a two-way street and that ample opportunity be afforded for the offering of suggestions and opinions by both faculty and students. This process logically requires that the principal be willing to delegate and that, insofar as is feasible, both faculty and students become active participants by being involved in implementing policies and decisions in appropriate areas. This procedure does not mean that administration abrogates its authority in matters for which it probably must accept complete responsibility. Furthermore, this procedure does work wonders in obtaining acceptance of arbitrary decisions and of policies which, by their nature, are doomed to be unpopular.

Finally, we should not lose sight of the fact that morale is derived from the word moral. In our attempts to engender in our students enthusiasm and zeal for education, we have the inherent obligation to raise their ethical sights. It is true that we start with those facets of their life which readily lend themselves to our purposes. While these may be worthy in themselves, we cannot be content to remain at this necessarily elementary stage. We must constantly strive to improve the level and standards of our school's morale. In this way our efforts not only provide the atmosphere that is vital to the carrying on of a successful educational program, but also actually do become a part and parcel of it.

Summary of the presentation made by KENT W. LEACH

THE following comments are based, perhaps, on subjective "evidence" and not supported by objective data. However, having visited approximately seven hundred secondary schools in the state of Michigan during the last eight years, I am now a bit partial to subjective data when discussing the topic of "school morale."

Some synonyms for morale are spirit, zeal, hope, and confidence. It might even be said that "school morale" can be called the mental state of a school. I like to use another term—"general tone." This general tone of

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a school is good when teachers, administrators, and pupils proceed from day to day in a relatively happy manner with little fanfare, doing a job they understand, and accomplishing things they all reasonably appreciate. As a visitor I have felt at the end of a day that I would like to have stayed in certain schools longer because it was really fun to be there. People were enjoying their work and doing a capable job. On the other hand, I have felt that I would never like to go to some schools. The first instance is illustrative of schools with good general tone—or at least I believe so. There are some questions that I believe are worthy of consideration in attempting to promote good school morale:

1. *Do teachers enjoy working with "kids"?* There is no scientifically developed yardstick to measure accurately whether or not a teacher likes working with young people. Of course, the pupils know; they use as measuring instruments the subjective emotional feelings that youth have in deciding whether adults really enjoy having them around. Frankly, I don't know what anyone can do about educating adults into liking young people, but I do think the subject is worthy of attention on the part of the principal and his staff. They could discuss, from time to time, the things that pupils expect of their teachers—such items as patience, humor, reasoning at an adult level, giving each pupil status, emphasizing positive factors of a youngster instead of the things he cannot do. I am not suggesting that teachers become "chummy" with boys and girls, but I am suggesting that they be friendly to them and keenly interested in trying to help each of them.

Teachers, of course, should be concerned with methods and techniques of teaching; but they should also be reminded from time to time that pupils are not laboratory specimens, but unique, wonderful, whole, and vibrant human beings. Unless teachers are genuinely appreciative of this fact, all attempts at developing good school morale will be, I feel, rather feeble. I have been in a few buildings where the physical facilities and grounds were inferior, the pupil-teacher ratios were high, and the pay schedules were below average; yet the "general tone" of the schools was very good. This was because the schools were fortunate enough to have most of their teachers genuinely interested in young people.

2. *Do teachers, pupils, and administrators mutually participate in formulating or suggesting rules, regulations, policies, and activities in the operating of the school?* "Involvement" is the main idea here. The three groups—administrators, teaching staff, and pupils—should have an active part in such planning. Of course, each of the three groups involved should know the "ground rules" by which each is to abide. By ground rules is meant the scope and limitations of the rights and functions of each group. It is important, too, that each group be aware of the way the other groups picture it. For example, administrators should not only be interested in performing their duties, but they should also be aware of those things that the other groups expect of them.

3. *Do teachers, pupils, and administrators have status?* Do they have a real feeling of belonging to an enterprise in which each feels he is playing an important part? There are, I suppose, many different ways of acquiring this status or "we" feeling; but one way would be to attempt, seriously, to treat one's colleagues as equals.

4. *Do parents and community groups know what the school is trying to do?* Administrators could help organize a PTA Advisory Council, or a School Planning Committee, or a Curriculum Studies Committee—some type of group where teachers, pupils, and administrators could meet with parents to suggest and to discuss certain questions. Such items as the activity program, curricular offerings, building plans, *etc.*, could be discussed. It should be stressed, however, that this must be a two-way proposition. If parents are invited to participate in discussions, they should feel free to make suggestions; and they should be given assurance that their ideas will be given careful consideration.

5. *Do teachers, pupils, and administrators regard the education process to be important?* A professional attitude towards one's job should exist. Pride in one's work should be exhibited not only in the normal process of teacher-teacher, teacher-administrator, and teacher-pupil relationships, but also in school-community relationships. I do not mean that educators should refrain from pointing out to the public ways in which education can be improved. Inadequate buildings, low salary schedules, high pupil-teacher ratios, *etc.* should be pointed out to the layman; but it should be accomplished in a professional, healthy, and positive manner. Apologies for being an educator should not be made to the public or to one's colleagues or to one's self. Rather, by actions and deeds just the reverse process should manifest itself.

School morale is not a "thing" which can be classified, categorized, and analyzed like the atomic structure of matter. Rather, it is formed by emotional overtones and having features comparable to a beautiful sunrise, a wonderful poem, or a delightful piece of music. School morale is a rather difficult thing to describe and rather impossible to achieve. It can be achieved, though, if the persons involved can remember that each little thing done well and a keen desire to do a better job each minute of each day can evolve into a tremendous potential force.

WHAT EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM IS NEEDED IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *Harry B. Spencer*, Director of Instruction, Sewanhaka Central High School District, Floral Park, New York

DISCUSSANTS:

Bernice Bishop, Principal, Fell Junior High School, Holland, Michigan
A. E. Roper, Principal, Roosevelt Junior High School, Middletown, Ohio

Summary of the presentation made by R. M. HODGKISS

JUNIOR high-school boys and girls in America are young American citizens. They are affected by the same pressures, anxieties, and insecurities which affect adult citizens in this tense age. They react to these pressures; and their needs, in respect to them, differ from those of adults only because these young people are less mature than adults; and they are restricted by the adult society in the ways in which they may participate in the affairs of citizenship. As young adolescents, their primary problem is to achieve responsible, mature status as adult, participating citizens. It follows naturally then, that the job of the junior high school is to design an educational program which will assist these young people to achieve this status.

With the all inclusive goal of assisting youth in achieving more effective citizenship competence, the following ten basic principles are presented as guides to the development of a more effective educational program for junior high-school students. Space does not permit a full development of each principle.

1. Provision is made for pupils to achieve to the maximum of their potential, skills, and knowledge in the so-called fundamentals, written and oral communication, mathematics, and our cultural heritage.

2. Provision is made for a school climate in which pupils can develop a healthy mind in a healthy body.

3. Provision is made for pupils to assume increasing responsibility for making decisions involving both individual and group action, and for carrying out plans to implement these decisions.

4. Provision is made for pupils to share increasingly in the determination of the goals to be achieved by each learning activity, and in the making of plans to achieve these goals.

5. Provision is made for pupils to participate increasingly in the process of evaluating both individual and group growth toward recognized and accepted goals.

6. Provision is made in the program for learning activities appropriate to the interests, abilities, and needs of all young adolescents within the area served by the school.

R. M. Hodgkiss is Principal of the O. Henry Junior High School in Austin, Texas.

7. Provision is made in the program of appropriate activities to make it possible for each pupil to experience some measure of success.

8. Provision is made for the community in which the school operates to be used as a laboratory to promote more effective learning.

9. Provision is made for pupils to gain an understanding of varying value systems of different socio-economic class groups, and to develop a more consistent value of their own.

10. Provision is made for activities designed to help young adolescents deal with problems that are unique to their age group.

These ten principles are generally applicable as guides to the development of an educational program for any age group. However, a command of the fundamental skills; a healthy mind in a healthy body; the kind of decisions for which individuals should be held responsible; the goals which they should be expected to set; the nature and quality of their own evaluation; their interests, abilities, and needs; the kinds of activities which make it possible for them to experience success; the community activities in which they should engage in order to promote learning; and the possibilities for dealing with varying value systems are determined largely by the maturity of the people concerned. In any given culture, chronological age is a major factor in determining maturity. Therefore, it relates to the application of the tenth principle just stated, that an appropriate educational program for young adolescents takes on unique characteristics, for the problems that are of most concern to these young people are relatively unique to them.

Summary of the presentation made by HENRY H. BATCHELDER

SINCE the original junior high schools, we find that many patterns of grade segment have been used to fit the needs of individual communities. They range in grade classification somewhere between the sixth and tenth grade. The program has been developed specifically for young adolescents between the ages of eleven and sixteen, and has tended to answer the needs for a greater differentiated program. They were originally designed not only to ease the transition between elementary school and upper secondary school, but also to lead students to explore and discover their specialized interests, attitudes, and abilities.

The modern junior high school, regardless of its grade divisions, has seemed to answer the following six functions: integration, which includes a common education in basic skills and knowledges; exploration to stimulate and develop a widening range of cultural, social, civic, avocational, and recreational interests; guidance, to assist the students in making intelligent decisions about their future; differentiation, to provide differentiated educational facilities suited to the varying background interests,

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abilities, and personalities of the students; socialization, to provide effective and satisfying participation in our modern complex social order; and, last, articulation, to provide for a gradual transition from pre-adolescent education to the training suited to the needs and interests of older adolescents. We find union and consolidated junior high schools in the prairie states and in the lesser populated areas, and we find junior high schools developed for urban and semi-urban population centers.

Many studies have been made to indicate the proper educational program needed in the junior high school. We have developed offerings which range from pre-vocational to a strictly academic college preparatory program, but our plans for the future indicate that it is best not to establish a pattern for any specific area or for our country at large. Many studies have been made to ascertain the needs of boys and girls, and the programs in our junior high schools have been developed to meet these needs, as well as the needs of higher institutions of learning.

Where do we stand today? Over the years since junior high schools began, we find a consistent pattern for our junior high-school curricular, co-curricular, and extracurricular activities answering not only the needs that I have just indicated, but also the needs of our changing country.

Our changing lives present the greatest challenge. An example of this might be indicated in our reading, writing, spelling, and English appreciation courses. No one can deny that our junior high-school youngsters are arriving with lesser abilities in the reading field and, as a consequence, our junior high-school program should be geared to up-grade these youngsters as they arrive at our doorsteps. Television sets are running in the average home, statistics tell us, five hours a day. That fact alone points up the need for our training in the field of English. Our present society demands more and more ability in the speech arts and certainly our junior high-school teachers need to emphasize this more and more. No longer can we be content to have our pupils read the writings of Louisa May Alcott, Albert Payson Terhune, and others of known literary stature. The past ten years have developed many other writers capable of intriguing and training and challenging young minds, and the pattern of our English classes must be parred to the new brand of literature as well as to the old.

Allow me to touch on grouping in our junior high schools. While a few years ago we may have had classes established with all pupils whose IQ's ranged from 105 to 110, just a few years later we found them in each class ranging from 69 to 180. The pendulum seems to be swinging again, and in many of our schools youngsters with poorer abilities are withdrawn from classes in order to receive special help, and our higher ability youngsters are now being presented with a "program for the gifted." We find our stronger junior high-school teachers teaching each class with two or three achievement groups and with geared enrichment pointed to each ability level.

The area of arithmetic and mathematics is another which challenges for developing more and more separate ability groups. As an example, our ninth-grade mathematics classes have sections for the mentally retarded and in addition to that, two or three other levels of thinking and achievement ability.

The changing needs seem to find us stressing the training for scientists, pure and applied. Our engineering schools, our factories and corporations from coast to coast continue to call upon our energies for the development of more and more engineers and more and more scientists. As another example of our changing junior high-school program, many of us have come to realize that "sex is here to stay" and that our early adolescents and adolescents not only need concrete information, but they also need the development of ideals—strong ideals in this area.

Our country's history and our practice keep religious education from our public schools, but that calls for us to gear our junior high-school program to the development and expansion of moral and spiritual values. Those are the things which we cannot teach by preaching. Those are the things which we must teach by example and by practice.

The educational program needed for our junior high schools today must include these things and more. They must be closely related to the needs of upper secondary and collegiate education, and must be made to tax the abilities of our teachers and, above all, they must be developed and constantly changed, not only to meet the needs of our boys and girls, but also the needs and demands of the communities in which we live, and to satisfy the requirements of industry, of agriculture, of scientific development, and of social expansion.

As junior high-school educators, we cannot be satisfied with the dull, with the mediocre teaching, or with a repetition of previous course materials. Our course of study needs to be re-vitalized each year, and we and our teachers need constantly to change and tax our imaginations, our abilities, and our techniques. Our junior high schools today are vastly different from those of thirty years ago and our junior high schools of 1957-58 need be different from our junior high schools of 1955-56. We cannot be content if they seem to run smoothly as they are. We cannot be content if they seem to take all the pupils who will arrive next September, because the following September and the ones to follow that September will bring us countless more boys and girls.

We cannot answer the needs by having double sessions. We must answer the needs by expansion, by experimentation, by sound growth, or we shall fail in our obligations to mothers and fathers, we shall fail in our obligations to boys and girls, and we shall fail in our obligations to ourselves and to our country. The educational program needed in our junior high schools cannot be categorized, cannot be pigeonholed, and cannot be stereotyped. It must shift as our needs shift, it must move as our country moves, and our job is to stay live enough to see that it does!

WHAT SHOULD WE DO ABOUT READING IN THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *Elmer Tarrall*, Principal, Granby High School, Norfolk, Virginia

DISCUSSANTS:

Edgar Stahl, Principal, Emmerich Manual Training High School, Indianapolis, Indiana

W. A. Vincent, Supervising Principal, Area Schools, Sebring, Florida

Summary of the presentation made by WALTER G. PATTERSON

IT WOULD be easy to generalize and speculate on what ought to be done about reading in high schools. However, I want to be specific and show what was done to help students read with increased comprehension and speed. In December 1953, a reading program was started at the Drury High School, North Adams, Massachusetts. The individual reading records of 800 students were studied, and 240 students were found to be reading below the 40th New England percentiles on the *Cooperative English Test: Reading Comprehension Section*. In addition, a number of college preparatory students were reading under the 70th—an estimated level needed to do college work.

These students were placed in thirteen reading class sections, twelve for the high-school students, and one for the trade-school boys. This made a teaching load of twenty-six periods with sections ranging between ten and twenty students. Each section met for two 45-minute periods weekly. Students were assigned to reading from study halls. The basic reading materials of the *Science Research Associates* were selected at an initial cost of \$586.34. In addition, a tachistoscope was purchased. Mrs. Martha B. Brawn, reading teacher, had had ten years of elementary teaching experience and a bachelor's degree when she came to Drury High School. Much of the success of Drury's reading program was due to the work of a well-trained, interested, and enthusiastic teacher.

HOW THE READING PROGRAM WORKED

The major purposes of the developmental reading course was to help the students improve in comprehension, vocabulary speed, and efficient study habits. A minimum for three levels of instruction was conducted, plus individual instruction in some cases where the student was seriously handicapped. Silent reading followed by written comprehension exercises constituted the greater part of the class time. Use of the tachistoscope

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and SRA accelerators was of great value in developing the interest of the students.

A student's ability to read and comprehend depends upon his vocabulary. Emphasis was upon meaning with a study of prefixes, suffixes, roots and origin of words, and rules of syllabication and diacritical marks.

RESULTS OF SYSTEMATIC INSTRUCTION IN READING

In the two and one-half year experiment in teaching reading, the group medians ranged as follows: The lowest increase in percentile points was 15 and the highest was 60. The lowest group median for improvement by grade levels was 1.4+, and the highest was 6.9+. For the sub-test in rate, the smallest gain was 21.6 per cent and the largest was 87.6 per cent. For the sub-test in Comprehension the lowest group median percentile gain was 12 and the highest was 63.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR HIGH SCHOOL READING COURSES

As a result of our two-and-one-half year reading experiment, we believe that all freshmen should take at least one semester of reading and that seniors should have the opportunity to elect reading. The teachers in the elementary schools are doing an excellent job of teaching reading. Now we in the secondary schools should continue the teaching of reading just as we continue the teaching of English, mathematics, and other subjects. Class size is optional and depends upon many factors. A class of fifteen makes a good working situation.

Reading classes should be taught by a reading teacher and should not be added onto the already heavy loads of the teachers. Distinctions ought to be made between developmental reading which aims to help all students improve in reading, and remedial work on a clinical basis for the three to five per cent of the students. Naturally, some remedial and corrective work is done as a part of the development work.

The direction of the reading of the students can be done best by the skillful teachers in the subject fields. That is, the major part of how to read is taught by the developmental reading teacher, and what to read is the responsibility of the teachers of English, social studies, science, and other subjects. Developmental reading should be for all, from the poor academic students to the superior.

The results demonstrate that a high school can help its students improve in reading by getting the best teacher available, by selecting and purchasing good reading materials and equipment, and by providing systematic instruction in reading.

We do not presume that all senior high schools should adopt the Drury Reading program. We do believe, however, that each high school should develop its own reading program according to its needs.

Summary of the presentation made by R. C. GUY

TO BE able to read adequately is one of the most important skills that a person can acquire. Not only is it important that a citizen master the mechanics of reading, but also that he be able to read analytically in order to understand and interpret the vast amount of material with which he comes in contact through newspapers, magazines, and various other publications. Since school work consists largely of reading for comprehension, the ability of a student to read adequately determines to a considerable degree his success in school. It is the chief difference between good and poor students. There are also many indirect effects of poor reading such as personality disturbances and dropping out of school. Thus we can readily see that the effects of reading ability are far reaching. Consequently, the teaching of reading can not be disregarded.

Schools must face realistically the problem of teaching reading. They are the only institution committed to this task. The public expects that schools perform the job well. In this area alone success or failure of the entire system depends.

It might be appropriate to raise the question of whether the teaching of reading should be a prerogative of the high school. Again we need to be realistic; if students cannot read adequately when they reach high school, then it becomes the job of the high school to do this teaching.

A balanced reading program in the high school has two phases: *first*, the developmental program which consists of up-grading the quality of reading which the student does as he progresses through school; *second*, the remedial reading program, which will discover the cause or causes of the students' inadequacies and attempt to correct these specific weaknesses.

All students can read better than they do. Students planning to attend college as well as those ending their formal education with high school need improvement in mastering reading. It is the job of the high school to provide the best possible opportunities for this training to take place.

The attack on the reading problem involves a multiplicity of areas and must be carried on on all fronts and in all subject matter fields. It is apparent that, if reading is to be taught with the greatest degree of effectiveness, it must become a program of all teachers on the faculty. With this kind of program in operation under adequate supervision, reading skills will be increased immeasurably.

R. C. Guy is Principal of the Senior High School in Hutchinson, Kansas.

HOW CAN THE PRINCIPAL PROMOTE PROFESSIONAL GROWTH IN THE STAFF?

CHAIRMAN: Woodrow W. Wilkerson, Supervisor of Secondary Education, State Board of Education, Richmond, Virginia

DISCUSSANTS:

W. A. Jones, Principal, Stephen Decatur Junior-Senior High School, Berlin, Maryland

B. L. Bergstrom, Superintendent, Union High School District, El Monte, California

Summary of the presentation made by THADDEUS J. LUBERA

THE principal can promote professional growth in the staff by practice of the concept of Friendliness and Helpfulness. Only in a friendly attitude do we find an influencing attitude. It is my sincere belief that the source of power to influence people to work enthusiastically does not stem from a collection of cliches or "power feel" over people. Rather, it stems from the administrator's attitude toward his staff members. Respect of, dignity for, and recognition of worthwhileness for every member of the staff predispose people toward being influenced to "improve in service," as it were.

The principal has a splendid opportunity to plan and operate a productive in-service program through the Faculty Advisory Council. The writer has utilized this idea in each of the two high schools in Chicago of which he was the principal. In this experience, he found teachers eager to study school problems and offer suggestions. This does not mean that staff members share principal's administrative responsibilities. It is merely a means of enlarging the professional knowledge and understanding of problems in area of instruction. Teachers find this experience a rich opportunity to study, analyze, and improve service to the classroom. At the point when the teacher begins to study the school situation in which she is a co-partner, professional growth begins.

Organization of staff members into committees helps to identify problems relating to teaching and learning. This activity creates a desire on the part of the teachers to secure deeper insight and understanding of problems of education.

The morale of the beginning teacher is sustained only when she is not abandoned professionally after routine "office briefing" or sermonizing. Instead, the principal should have a plan for the discussion of teaching and learning problems in a tactful and helpful manner. A friendly con-

Thaddeus J. Lubera is Associate Superintendent in Charge of Instruction in the Chicago Public Schools, Chicago, Illinois.

ference with a new teacher will result in a wholesome attitude toward professional improvement in service.

Several factors impede the professional improvement of staff. The first one is *inertia*. The consequent results of this inertia, when prolonged, may be "drifting with the current," the teacher giving only fair service. Sometimes the principal lacks courage to undertake steps to improve this teacher. He fears possible teacher sensitiveness. The centering of attention on teachers of this type is an opportunity to help. We cannot compel teachers to grow professionally, but through wise counsel and use of worthy incentives he can create an urge to increase in competence.

Any worthy program of teacher improvement in service is spelled out best only when the principal is an *enthusiast* and a *doer*. Leadership in improving teachers is hard business. It means more than bearing the brunt alone. It also means influencing others to assume their share. It isn't so much what we say or even plan, but what we do together that manifests enthusiasm.

Professional *recognition* for good work is a great help in the creation of incentives for self-improvement. The principal, in recognizing the teacher's superior ability, need not be over complimentary at all times. Better yet, I believe, is the technique of professional consultation with the teachers on matters pertaining to the teacher's expert knowledge and superb teaching techniques. Failure to recognize the superior ability of a teacher or paucity of appreciation on the principal's part may result in "what's the use attitude."

Summary of the presentation made by T. P. BAKER

NEVER has the principal had the challenge that he has today in the promotion of professional growth in his staff. The principal is now faced with a staff that is composed of inexperienced teachers, teachers who are returning to the profession after a long lay off, teachers who will be with him only one or two years, teachers who have more home responsibilities, teachers with limited training, *etc., etc.* No longer does the principal have a stable faculty in many situations. Formerly, the principal had two or more years to develop the members of his staff, but today he must become effective very soon or his value will be lost for the teachers will be gone. How then can the principal speed up his in-service program so that he may make his staff an effective one in the shortest length of time? It is to this point that we shall address ourselves.

In the larger school systems, it is impossible for the supervisory staff to give very much individual assistance to teachers. Individual and small

group assistance must come from within the building to a great extent. Some of the techniques that we use in Austin follow:

RELEASED TIME FOR SUPERIOR TEACHERS

In one of our junior high schools we are releasing teachers in language arts, mathematics, and social studies one period per day to work with first-year teachers in these areas. Classes are visited and personal and group conferences are held. Assistance is given in selecting material, lesson planning, discipline techniques, *etc.* This approach is proving so satisfactory that we plan to extend it to other buildings next year.

FACULTY STUDY GROUPS

Each of our building faculties are carrying on study groups. There are, generally, two studies going on at a time—one is system-wide and one is in the local building. Each Monday afternoon is reserved for these study groups. The system-wide studies this year are in the areas of social studies and science. A majority of our local buildings are working on the problem of "How Best To Meet the Needs of the Gifted Child."

SPECIAL AFTERNOON CLASSES

Our supervisory staff conducts optional afternoon classes on Wednesdays and Thursdays. The first semester of this year we had classes in art and handwriting. Last year we had classes on the teaching of reading. The reading program has been stressed in our secondary schools and many teachers enrolled in these classes.

UNIVERSITY CLASSES FOR CREDIT

The local university offers many late afternoon and evening classes. Our teachers are encouraged to enroll in these classes. Also, the university offers classes each semester just for the Austin teachers, many times for particular buildings. Last semester one such class was for a junior high school which is predominantly Latin. In it, a thorough study of the curricular needs was made and courses of study set up to meet these needs, in part. Another class was organized in another secondary school to study the student-teacher program and how both the student teacher and regular teacher could benefit. The above are typical cases.

PROFESSIONAL READING

Each of our buildings has a professional library. It is difficult to get teachers in their busy life to do much reading of this type. Some of our principals are asking teachers to write a brief summary of a book or article they have read. These briefs are then mimeographed and given to each teacher in the building. The average person will read the abstract, whereas, they would not read the entire book or article.

INTER-SCHOOL AND INTER-CLASS VISITATION

Upon recommendation of the principal, teachers may be excused from classes for a day to visit other teachers who are doing an excellent piece of work. Before a visit is made, a supervisor has a conference with the teacher to do the visiting and the one to be visited. After the visit, a three-way conference is held with the two teachers and the supervisor. A substitute is furnished for the teacher doing the visiting.

The more teachers are involved in faculty committee work, course of study development, participation in work shops, *etc.*, the more interested they become in professional growth. The principal must be alert to the danger of involving the same teachers, who are efficient, over and over in various programs and not use the ones who could profit most. Only as the principal is able to develop professional growth in his faculty can he have the effective educational program in his building that he should have.

WHAT ARE DESIRABLE CURRICULUM CHANGES IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *Oscar E. Thompson*, Associate Professor of Education, Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa

DISCUSSANTS:

L. A. Sydnor, Principal, Booker T. Washington Junior High School, Roanoke, Virginia

Henry Antell, Principal, Parsons Junior High School, Flushing, New York

Summary of the presentation made by LEE V. HALLOWELL

THE junior high school occupies a unique position in our educational scheme of things. Teachers and students alike find themselves influenced by the well-established, better defined orbits of the elementary and secondary schools. We have found ourselves in the position of attempting to ride two horses at once in our endeavor to glean from each the best practices they had to offer. Too often we have not known whether we were fish or fowl as we try to help our youngsters through one of their most perplexing developmental areas. The moment is long overdue when we must halt our vacillating ways and accept the fact that youngsters of junior high-school age are different from either elementary- or secondary-school youngsters. They have different drives, desires, and needs, and we must find our own ways of assisting these elusive, confused, paradoxically childish adults to their next developmental plateau.

Lee V. Hallowell is Principal of the Fifth Street Junior High School in Bangor, Maine.

Traditionally we have been given the responsibility of strengthening the students' skills in using the fundamentals. This is a logical and reasonable goal to achieve before the youngsters begin to specialize in the high school. We must teach these fundamentals as fundamentals, as a meaningful and necessary prelude to later growth. It is more logical and efficient to do so. To the junior high-school students, it may be better psychology and common sense to allow them to work in specific areas and on specific problems instead of putting these fundamentals into a common learnings arrangement.

A careful study must be made of the individual to guide him toward higher education or a terminal one in later years. We are at the parting of the ways before the differences of mental and social advantage direct our students into different walks of life. It is imperative that we make the most of our opportunities to promote social and athletic activities for all to participate in and enjoy together.

Group guidance, discussions, and study of pre-adolescent problems provide an outlet for questions and doubts of students. Direction and stimulation of thinking toward attitudes and ideals is an almost untouched area that should yield immeasurable results. Work in this direction could well be the greatest contribution of our junior high schools. Our students are beginning their philosophy of life. They are giving much thought to intangible things as well as the tangible. Perhaps in later years our efforts could result in fewer confused or mentally ill people. This challenge should be met by our junior high schools.

Leisure reading, clubs, and hobbies have a great contribution to make toward junior high-school education. We should encourage these things before our students get caught up in the whirl of more strenuous academic or adult life.

Every effort should be made to teach and encourage good, active citizenship. Ours is the greatest opportunity of all to emphasize our American heritage and the need for better Americans for a better America.

Summary of the presentation made by ROBERT J. PURDY

CHANGE is a relative thing, and desirable curriculum changes, from the speaker's viewpoint, must be changes from the six-period day, exploratory program in practical and fine arts, and rather strong emphasis upon the English and social studies program which characterize the junior high-school curriculum in Los Angeles. Assuming, and this may be a rather broad assumption, that our Los Angeles curriculum is typical, I would then suggest as most desirable curricular changes the following:

Robert J. Purdy is Principal of the Daniel Webster Junior High School in Los Angeles, California.

1. In the social studies we need a generally accepted division of emphasis in the study of United States history and government as between the elementary school, the junior high school, and the senior high school. Repetition does much to kill enthusiasm for the study of this subject, and lines of distinction need to be broadly and sharply drawn in order to be appreciated by the student in junior or senior high school. Nor can we continue to countenance the almost perfunctory study which is all too often given to the history of the United States in the twentieth century in both the junior and senior high schools.

2. Perhaps no school subject has been given as much attention in the public press and among lay groups during the past few years as has science. School districts throughout the nation are now giving much emphasis to science at the elementary-school level. In the junior high school, however, the rather limited attention given to the area of science may not only fail to carry forward the interest and enthusiasm created in the elementary-school pupil but also actually contribute to loss of enthusiasm for science on the part of the students.

In our concern to solve this problem, we must be careful not simply to teach *more* science, and thus become father to a condition in science which parallels our present situation in United States history. The high schools to which we send our junior high-school graduates must do some evaluating and adjusting of their science programs. The traditional courses in life science, biology and elementary physical science which capable junior high-school graduates encounter in the senior high school are often such as to dampen thoroughly their enthusiasm for majoring in science.

It is in these two areas, the social studies and science, that the need for change is most pressing. However, changes that are needed only become effective, and will only make good sense educationally, if we bear strongly in mind that:

1. The junior high school is one phase of an educational system which is continuous in nature. The junior high-school curriculum must be geared to—and modified in relation to—the elementary-school and senior high-school curriculums.

2. We cannot longer add to the curriculum without either removing something in place of each addition, increasing the number of instructional periods in—and the length of—the school day, or lengthening the school year.

3. Regardless of the finest efforts of the curriculum makers, the textbook people, the supervisor and the administrator, without fine and capable teachers who are qualified both by love of children and adequate training in their subject field, these and other desirable changes in curriculum cannot become effective.

HOW CAN FACULTY MEETINGS BE USED MOST EFFECTIVELY?

CHAIRMAN: *Maynard C. Robinson*, Principal, Rutland High School, Rutland, Vermont

DISCUSSANTS:

C. J. Gilbert, Acting Director of Administrators, East Baton Rouge Parish School, Baton Rouge, Louisiana

Allan M. Stewart, Principal, Herrick Junior High School, Downers Grove, Illinois

Summary of the presentation made by HOMER R. KESTERSON

I REMEMBER the first faculty meeting I attended as a teacher. The meeting was held on Friday at 9:00 A.M. before the opening of school on the following Tuesday. For some reason which escapes me now I was late. As I entered the room, our principal paused, glanced in my direction, and said politely, "Good afternoon, Mr. Kesterson." I blurted out, "Hello," and looked for a place to hide. The gathering was held in a regular classroom with a seating capacity of forty. The faculty numbered sixty-five and teachers were sitting on window ledges or standing. I was forced to lean against the wall at the front of the room.

One would suppose that under such crowded conditions, the faculty meeting would have been brief. The principal, however, had a full agenda of items that had to be considered. It was a long meeting and a good meeting. Our principal was a very personable young man in his middle thirties and his teachers respected and adored him. He presided well in a friendly, helpful manner. I decided during that first meeting that here was a man I would enjoy working with and one to whom I could go with any problems I might encounter. Though all of this happened twenty years or so ago, I remember him best as he stood in front of the room conducting faculty meetings.

Now that I have attended staff meetings for twenty-one years, I have reached the conclusion that all faculty meetings are important and that none is more important than the first one of the school year. During the first meeting, the principal sets the tone for his school. Teachers look to him for leadership. His philosophy of education, his attitude toward students, teachers, and the public, and his display of those personal characteristics which are the attributes of a good teacher set the example which helps to bring about the morale and spirit necessary to a good school.

Homer R. Kesterson is Principal of the Parkview Senior High School in Springfield, Missouri.

There are few experiences more satisfying to a principal than a successful meeting of the school's staff, or more distressing than a poor one. A well-planned meeting seldom fails. The school administrator is beset by many problems and situations. As a result, too often the realization that staff meeting day has arrived comes only when he checks his calendar upon arriving at the office. Faculty meetings cannot be planned well in the brief periods of respite available during a typical school day. I have found that a sheet of paper entitled "staff meeting" placed on my desk encourages me to jot down ideas and items to discuss for the next meeting. Saturday morning, when I am less interrupted, gives me sufficient time to check my notes and organize them into a logically sequential agenda. I have found it very profitable to go over the items with my assistant principal, the registrar, and others who may be particularly concerned with the policies or problems to be presented.

The principal should be held responsible for planning faculty meetings, but he should not make the mistake of being the one and only person taking part. The average staff has many capable people who have had considerable experience and success in certain phases peculiar to the operation of a school. They should be used when possible. Such use of their talents is a compliment to them and is greatly appreciated by the members of the staff in general. The faculty meeting is an excellent medium for promoting and presenting in-service training, professional development, administrative problems and policies, and unity of purpose and effort and for solving the many problems faced by a school.

Every principal in this room has had experience in presiding at staff meetings, so I do not propose to list the problems which should be taken up in a faculty meeting. I have never heard of a principal having to consult a list of such problems in order to complete an agenda for his meeting. Every school has its problems, and the principal is usually faced with the problem of cutting the items available for discussion rather than hunting for more.

I believe that most of us have determined, in our particular schools, how often these meetings should be held. In our school, we hold staff meetings twice a month. Other schools meet weekly, or quarterly. It would be presumptuous on my part, to tell you which schedule is best for your school.

I think each of us should take a good look at our faculty meetings and attempt to make them more interesting and more purposeful. Most of us know how to do a better job of planning and presiding than we are doing. We're somewhat like the farmer who was invited to attend a meeting called for the purpose of improving farming in the community. The county agent gave a personal invitation to this farmer because he had the most run down farm in the county. The farmer thanked the agent for his invitation but declined. "Nope," he answered, " 'Twouldn't do me

no good to come. Ya see, I ain't farmin' half as good as I know how already." Isn't that true of us? We're not planning half as good staff meetings as we're capable of having already.

Summary of the presentation made by F. L. FOWLER

IF A secondary-school principal expects his teachers to create an environment in the classroom whereby students may learn and practice the concepts of democracy while they are learning the content of the various courses, he must plan and work to develop the same kind of atmosphere in which the members of the faculty may find solutions to vital school and professional problems. The principal who accepts this challenge considers each teacher not only as an individual, but also as a member of the faculty group. He believes in the ability of such a group to make sound decisions and knows that policies made in this manner will be carried out more effectively than those handed down by administrative officials. The degree of success in establishing the school's democratic environment will depend in large measure upon the ability of the principal to get results within this framework.

The faculty meeting should be considered, in the broad sense, as any gathering of teachers, whether departmental, committee meeting, the entire faculty, or any other grouping where the work is related directly to the total school program. Usually the purposes to be accomplished will suggest the appropriate organization. In general, faculty meetings are of two types: (1) the administrative type where the principal and/or his assistants communicate to the faculty purely routine matters necessary to the operation of the school; and (2) the in-service, or professional growth, type where members of the faculty assume leadership roles in studying problems of vital interest to the teachers and in formulating policies. Also in this category would be meetings or gatherings of the faculty for purely social purposes which help in building unity and morale.

The effectiveness of any faculty meeting usually can be predicted by the planning which has gone into it. This is the area where the responsibility falls squarely upon the principal. Even though he will have representative teachers help with the details, he must still provide the motivating force for all plans, including physical arrangements, the agenda, techniques to be used, providing for discussion leaders and for means of communication where needed. This does not mean that adequate planning is a one-man job. Far from it. Rather it means that the principal has an opportunity to know the total program, and this knowledge must be injected into the plans if faculty meetings achieve effective results.

F. L. Fowler is Principal of the Greenville High School in Greenville, South Carolina.

When the hour arrives for the meeting which has been planned, it should start on time and should be held within the time announced. All the while, every effort should be made to maintain good relations among the members of the group. Encouragement should be given for expression of ideas and opinions from all teachers during the discussion periods. These ideas should be reflected in definite conclusions agreed upon by the group. More effective use can be made of faculty meetings if the teachers are convinced that the work is worth while, if they have a part in planning and conducting the meetings, and if they can see some good results which apply to their school and their teaching situations.

WHAT PROCEDURES AND TECHNIQUES ASSURE GOOD SCHEDULES FOR THE SCHOOL AND INDIVIDUAL STUDENT?

CHAIRMAN: *Loren Chastain*, Principal, Central High School, Muncie, Indiana

DISCUSSANTS:

R. L. Liebenberg, Supervisor of Secondary Schools, State Department of Public Instruction, Madison, Wisconsin

Mrs. Mary I. McMullen, Principal, Abraham Lincoln High School, San Diego, California

Summary of the presentation made by ROBERT L. FOOSE

ONCE upon a time there was a school with a schedule that brought all the right pupils to the right teacher at the right time and provided just the right amount of time for work, eating, and activities—and everyone lived happily in this Utopia forever. The tale and the fact too frequently are poles apart.

Schedule making remains one of the thorny problems for the secondary-school administrator and requires hours of work coupled with much ingenuity if the results are to serve well the needs of the school and individual pupils. The problem is presently complicated by overcrowded facilities, necessitating double and even triple sessions in many districts. No wonder that most principals are constantly looking for easier ways to solve the problem of making the most efficient use of all available space, scheduling teachers so that they can do their most effective work, and enabling students to follow a program which will provide the most meaningful educational experience for them.

Robert L. Foote is Principal of the Westfield Senior High School in Westfield, New Jersey.

All the textbooks on secondary-school administration devote considerable space to suggestions on schedule making, discussing the advantages of the block, the mosaic, and combination methods. There are many publications such as the Johnstons' "Schedule Building for Today's Secondary School," Ivok's "How To Prepare the Schedule for a Secondary School" from the Harvard Workshop series; and Edick's "Scheduling System." All of them, with their special devices, ranging from schedule boxes to basic groups, can be helpful to the principal who will weigh their procedures against the needs of his particular school.

This it would seem is the first requisite for the schedule maker: knowing as much as possible about his own school and community and the character of the students to be served. In two schools which the author has known intimately, the philosophy has been to provide a program which would take into account, as far as possible, the needs of individual students. The first steps in providing a suitable schedule for these 700 to 1100 students involved the annual revision of the program of studies by a standing committee on curriculum representing all the departments of the school; an orientation program in the spring with the parents and students in each grade to assist them through a study of the printed program of studies and a curriculum handbook; interviews with guidance counselors and home-room teachers to make the selection of courses best suited to their needs; and finally their selection of the appropriate courses on election blanks which require the parent's written approval.

With a little experience, any administrator can determine quickly from a summary of these course selections the number of class sections which will be needed for the following year's schedule. The next step will be the determination of staff assignments in such fashion that he is satisfied that teacher load is equalized and that instructors will be asked to teach in the areas where they are best qualified and certificated. Sample charts in such publications as have been mentioned may be helpful for the principal preparing his first schedule. A minimum of four of these undoubtedly will be needed: a chart of class sections to be assigned to each staff member; another for rooms to be checked as assignments are made; the master chart; and the enrollment chart to control pupil assignments.

As has been mentioned, knowledge of the background of the school and community and of any peculiar characteristics of the program is the first essential in the actual preparation of the master schedule. To illustrate: a school interested in solving a number of schedule problems began its work with a faculty committee to study the situation. Both staff and students were satisfied with the length of the school day, particularly since it allowed for a good after-school athletic and activity program without conflict with academic classes. However, longer class periods seemed desirable; the schedule lacked flexibility for activities; a number of large sections such as choral and instrumental groups of 110 to 130

had to be scheduled before and after school hours instead of within the school day; an increasing number of students desired to elect minor subjects beyond the number of available periods in the week; and teachers had no free time during school hours.

The results of the study were the recommendation and adoption of a rotary schedule which accomplished the desired aims. Periods for scheduling were increased from 33 to 35 per week; the length of periods was increased from a basic 40 to 50 minutes; each teacher could have an unassigned period daily; a flexible arrangement for weekly assemblies, club meetings, and activities was provided; some time units of doubtful value were eliminated; and all class groups regardless of size were brought within the school day. In at least one area of the country this type of rotary schedule providing for seven scheduled periods, with a daily program of six periods resulting in six meetings for each class in every seven days, has been winning wide favor.

As the preparation of the master chart proceeds on this type of time schedule, the principal is free to set it up on a mosaic or block basis. In any case, he must constantly take into account the characteristics which are peculiar to his school. If large groups are to be scheduled in certain periods, the number of other classes in the same time slot must be correspondingly smaller. One-term classes which may enroll students adjusting their programs later in the year must be scheduled as the need can best be anticipated. Courses with single classes must be scheduled in separate periods. A few trial runs of students in each curriculum and each grade are usually sufficient as a final check on the master chart to eliminate serious conflicts before the scheduling actually begins.

If one of the primary purposes of the scheduling process is to assure the best program for the individual student, the actual assignments may best be made by administrators, administrative assistants, and guidance personnel who are familiar with the personalities and problems of the students and the teachers. This system has worked successfully to that end in many high schools where the emphasis has been less upon production line methods designed to make a tedious task easier. Principals who understand their problem, plan well, and implement such procedures will gain a real satisfaction from a school which opens with every class in business on the first day, with schedules which avoid confusion in the school, and with a program designed to meet the real individual differences of the students.

Summary of the presentation made by EARL E. SECHRIEST

THE following procedures and techniques are practiced successfully in a large high school. Our school is organized on the home-room plan. To begin, each pupil has on file in his home room a course plan card showing his educational plan from year to year. This plan has been carefully discussed with the pupil four or five weeks before the end of the term. Completed courses have been checked off and those for next term are circled.

Now these cards are collected from all home rooms and, from the cards, a tabulation sheet by subjects is made. Figures from this tabulation are turned over to the department head in each subject matter field. The department head then confers with the teachers in his department and assignments are made.

The schedule committee collects the proposed assignments from each department and arranges them by departments and periods on a single sheet. This sheet does not show anything but topic numbers and the periods in the school day. This sheet is mimeographed and copies are distributed to the home rooms. From this skeleton schedule the pupils are asked to see if they can make their own individual schedule of classes for the next term. A record of any conflicts arising are turned in to the schedule committee in writing, giving the pupil's name, home room, and subjects conflicting.

The schedule committee now proceeds to eliminate conflicts and to prepare the master schedule. This schedule is arranged by departments according to subjects, giving class periods, topic numbers, room numbers, and teacher's names. The master schedule is mimeographed ready for use by the pupils on registration day.

Other materials necessary in preparation for registration day are blank registration cards, and small, numbered cards to be used for the pupils' order in registering. These cards are numbered consecutively, one for each pupil in schools. The cards have been thoroughly shuffled and each home room receives enough cards for its members.

REGISTRATION DAY PROCEDURE

Members of the home room report to the home-room teacher as they arrive at school on the day of registration. The home-room teacher distributes copies of the master schedule and provides each pupil with registration cards, one for each major and minor subject. Each pupil also draws an order of registration card from a hat and writes his name on the card. The home-room teacher then collects these cards and arranges them according to their names in descending order.

Earl E. Sechriest is Principal of the Ensley High School in Birmingham, Alabama.

In another part of the building a large room (gym or cafeteria) has been provided with tables properly labeled for each department. The department heads, some staff members, and some members of the senior class are seated behind the tables awaiting pupils as they come from their home rooms to register for their classes. At the ringing of a bell or other signal, one pupil from each home room leaves the home room according to the number on his order of registration card and proceeds to the registration room. Bells may be sounded or a PA system used as more pupils are needed in the registration room. Using the individual schedule which he has already made, the pupil proceeds to the tables for his various subjects and presents his card in duplicate. The student retains one card and the duplicate is left with the attendant. He continues this procedure until his schedule is complete. In each case a staff member records his name on the section sheet which forms the class roll. Section sheets are numbered and lined off from one to thirty or any other number which the schedule committee indicates as a maximum number of students to be put in a given section. When the maximum number is reached, this particular section is declared closed and other pupils will have to select another section that is not yet filled.

After the pupil has completed his registration, he returns to his home room and fills out two schedule cards listing his topics by periods and room numbers. He keeps one copy for himself and leaves the duplicate with the home-room teacher. The following day is a regular school day. The pupil carries his duplicate schedule with him to be initialed by each of his teachers. The home-room teacher collects these schedules at the end of the day and turns them over to the schedule committee for checking. Some advantages of the above procedure are : (1) saving in time both for the staff and the pupils; (2) orderly conduct in the halls and classrooms; (3) classes are automatically balanced; and (4) pupils have an opportunity to choose teachers.

WHAT ARE TRENDS IN GUIDANCE SERVICES IN THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *Irene C. Hypps*, Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Pupil Appraisal, Study, and Attendance, Public Schools, Washington, D. C.

DISCUSSANTS:

M. M. Gillender, Principal, Godwin Heights High School, Grand Rapids, Michigan

Samuel W. Jacobs, Principal, Junior-Senior High School, Greensburg, Pennsylvania

Summary of the presentation made by G. E. MINICLIER

GUIDANCE is considered to be the process of helping individuals understand themselves in the light of their abilities, aptitudes, interests, strengths and limitations. This process assists them to use their personal and social potentialities wisely, their vocational and educational opportunities to advantage, and to become capable of mature self-guidance. It is both an educational philosophy and a program of specific techniques and services which implement this philosophy.

During the past decade there has been an increased acceptance of this guidance point of view by educators and a mark of approval has been placed upon guidance by the public. Parents expect more diagnosis and treatment of learning difficulties, helpful educational planning, and assistance with vocational exploration and decisions. As the public, parents, and students look more to the schools for help in solving these problems the over-all guidance organization continues to change.

One of the more important developments in this field is the organization of co-ordinated plans of guidance throughout the full twelve-year program of the public schools. In the past, most emphasis has been on the secondary-school level. This has often been piecemeal and disorganized. Organization for the guidance of elementary-school children has been almost non-existent. Often there has been inadequate coordination and overlapping of the functions of specialists, such as, the visiting teacher, school psychologists, remedial teachers, and counselors. Relationships with community agencies and the use of community resources have not been fully developed. In many school systems there is a tendency to place the entire guidance organization under the direction of one head or consultant. This is true in some small systems as well as many of the larger cities.

G. E. Miniclier is Principal of the Washington High School in St. Paul, Minnesota.

Along with the development of a guidance organization to cover the combined elementary and secondary schools there seems to be an even stronger trend to clarify and restructure the role of the counselor in the high school. Many of the functions assigned to him in the past have been taken over by other specialists in the field. Dr. Willis Dugan of the University of Minnesota, from whom I have gathered much of the material presented here, has stated that the counselor's duties should include individual counseling and group work with students; acting as a resource person and professional consultant to the teaching and administrative staff; consulting with parents on matters of personal, educational, and vocational plans and decisions of their children; and serving as a channel of communications and working relationships with referral agencies and the specialized staff. Administrators are recognizing that counselors perform a unique service, not merely one which others, without specialized training, could perform. They are guarding against counselors being overloaded with a variety of non-guidance functions by defining the duties expected of them in their school system.

As school systems re-evaluate the role of the counselor, they tend to increase the responsibility of the classroom teacher for guidance. The teachers have always had certain guidance duties, they are now assuming broader and more basic functions. They are better able to perform these duties as more aids, materials, and techniques are being designed to help the classroom teacher. Training in guidance procedures is being provided by in-service courses as well as basic undergraduate courses to teacher candidates in colleges.

An additional trend in guidance services in the secondary school is that of the team approach in studying "pupils with problems." Within the school the team is often composed of the counselor, principals, visiting teacher, nurse, and teachers who are concerned with the case. This group has regularly scheduled weekly meetings to discuss the problems referred to it. The main responsibility for a particular case is delegated to one of the members of the "problem committee," though the group approach to a solution is practiced. Social workers, probation officers, and other outside agencies are often invited to these meetings. Teachers who are involved in this group process gain valuable insight into the workings of the guidance program.

The importance of specialized services in the guidance program was recognized by the White House Conference on Education when it recommended in its report that cooperative programs of pupil personnel and psychological services be developed. This should give impetus to the trend of establishing centers for these services on a county or regional basis. The need for such services was pointed out in a recent Minnesota survey which showed that 1,500 additional specialists, 950 of them in small school systems, should be employed in that state.

Secondary-school guidance is also being influenced by the growth of professional groups concerned with the improvement of guidance and counseling standards and practices. State and local counselor clubs as well as national organizations have encouraged better training, certification, and leadership in this field. More than 175 universities are now offering graduate programs for preparation of guidance specialists, and basic guidance courses for teachers are offered in more than a thousand colleges. Standards for guidance work and professional certification have been achieved in some degree in nearly all states. In more than twenty states, certification of counselors is required and in eight it is optional. The increasing effectiveness and scope of leadership in guidance services at state and national levels has also been of immense importance in improving guidance services at the secondary-school level.

The increase in quality and quantity of tests and other appraisal instruments has been so great that the concern in this field is now largely with the utilization and interpretation of these tools. There seems to be a growing tendency to make better use of test results in helping the pupil understand himself. The need for improvement in this respect is shown by a report of a state survey which indicates that though ninety per cent of the schools gave scholastic tests only thirty per cent interpreted them in any way to the student. Schools are also doing a better job of helping parents understand their children by interpreting test results to them.

Other trends that should be noted include increased coordination of school and community services for children and youth; increased interest in identifying and providing for the gifted youngsters as well as other exceptional students; studies of holding power with a view to discovering and correcting conditions which cause failures and dropouts; and the developing of new methods of pupil evaluation and marking so that pupil progress may be more effectively interpreted.

Summary of the presentation made by ALFRED S. CURTIS

GUIDANCE services in secondary schools have changed considerably over the past several years and are continually increasing in number and complexity. Thirty years ago, group guidance was effective and was the only type of guidance offered by many schools. Today, because of the tremendous growth of industry and the development of thousands of different products requiring hundreds of different kinds of specialized training, the most effective guidance is individual. Some forms of group guidance are, of course, still necessary and valuable.

Each year more people get into the guidance activity of the school. The colleges are taking a constantly larger part in providing information

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on a personal basis for high-school students. College Days and College Nights are becoming more and more a time for individual instruction and advice. Some colleges are inviting students to visit the campus to see firsthand the work involved in the several courses of instruction they offer. These tours are less and less on a "sell the college" basis and more and more on a sound guidance plan.

Because each boy is subject to military service, the guidance activities of the Armed Forces have increased. They are anxious to have every young man fully informed of the opportunities of the various services. The schools are, therefore, called upon to provide opportunities for this type of guidance activity.

More and more, communities are participating in career day programs with many lay individuals becoming experienced in giving effective vocational counseling. Service clubs are making this a part of their work. Many have guidance service certificates which they present to their local school. The certificate displays the names of individuals who are willing to give individual guidance and information to any student interested in certain vocations or professions.

In many localities, the secondary schools are beginning their guidance work long before the pupil reaches the school. Four- and five-year schools are meeting with the parents of children who are still in elementary school. Here they make the parents familiar with the offerings of the school, the courses required for certain areas of work, and other general information about the high school. Many distribute books such as *It's High Time*¹ to the parents. At other times the students themselves are visited in their schools and the orientation program is started. Parent-Teacher-Student Associations are becoming effective in high schools where formerly no PTA would take hold.

The answer to the need for vocational training for certain students, which is too expensive and varied for the school to offer within its walls, has been solved by the growth and development of the distributive education, diversified occupation and vocational office training programs. These, of course, involve the cooperation of the business and industrial interests of the community who hire the students on a part-time basis and give them training and experience on the job.

All of the aforementioned activities plus broader testing, often on a state-wide basis, and the increased use of more complete school records that follow the pupil from the first grade through graduation from high school are trends toward more complete and more effective guidance for today's youth.

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HOW CAN THE SCHOOL PROGRAM CONTRIBUTE TO A BETTER UNDERSTANDING AND ACCEPTANCE OF MORAL AND SPIRITUAL VALUES?

CHAIRMAN: *Joseph J. Devitt*, Director of Secondary-School Administration, State Department of Education, Augusta, Maine

DISCUSSANTS:

G. E. Evans, Principal, Vaughan Road Collegiate Institute, Toronto, Ontario, Canada

J. T. Wallace, Principal, Hattiesburg High School, Hattiesburg, Mississippi

Summary of the presentation made by C. C. MILLER

MORAL and spiritual values were the basis upon which this nation was founded. The public schools have been one of the greatest contributing factors in the growth of the democratic principles among our people. The constitution places certain restrictions on the teaching of religion in our public schools; but the public schools have definite responsibilities in teaching moral and spiritual values for the perpetuation of our free, democratic way of life. In many ways a good school can discharge these responsibilities through its program by teaching things that develop moral and spiritual values.

Many schools, like individuals, have distinct personalities. The program of the school should implement the philosophy of the school and the community it serves. The understanding and acceptance of moral and spiritual values in a particular school or school system will be effective to the extent that these values are recognized and planned for and the means provided for their realization.

The conditions in the world today are such that a sincere effort on the part of the schools to place a greater emphasis on moral and spiritual values must be made an important part of the school program. It is necessary, therefore, that these values which the program is to stress be stated clearly and definitely.

Whenever possible, it would be desirable in this process of formulating values to invite and use the opinions of interested and representative members of the community. Parents and other interested persons should be kept informed of the values sought by the school. Teachers and students should have an important part in the formation of moral and spiritual goals for the school. The effectiveness of the program itself will depend upon the action of the individual teacher and student. The use of

C. C. Miller is Principal of the Sunset High School in Dallas, Texas.

such community resources as the parents, teachers, and students in formulating the program should result in a better understanding and acceptance of the program.

It has been said that the moral and spiritual values are caught as well as taught. Perhaps the best way to teach values is to live them daily. In the school program, experiences should be provided to enable students to realize these values. These experiences can be provided by recognizing and emphasizing moral and spiritual values through many regular subjects taught in the schools:

In literature and poetry, the teacher has a good opportunity to teach values common to all people.

In social studies, many moral issues can be pointed out that apply to various events and times in history.

Studying about the religions of the world should develop tolerance and a respect for religious beliefs of other people.

In government, students learn the value of good citizenship and their responsibilities as citizens.

Music and the other arts develop aesthetic values in students.

In science and mathematics, opportunities for spiritual enrichment will be created and used.

In fact, all school subjects afford an opportunity to teach moral and spiritual values.

The extracurricular program of the school offers many opportunities to develop such qualities. These activities should be conducted by students with teacher supervision. The morning meditation, or devotion, is very effective in emphasizing these values in daily living. Saying grace before each meal in the cafeteria is appreciated and respected by all. Religious Emphasis Week conducted each year in the school involves the entire student body, faculty, and many people of the community. Religious assembly programs at Thanksgiving, Christmas, Easter, and during Brotherhood Week involve the entire community. These things tend to bring about a closer relationship between the school and the community, and thus the patrons are informed about the objectives of the school in moral and spiritual training.

The club program and the activity period in the school can be used very effectively in character building. The athletic program, too, affords an opportunity to evaluate good health, clean living, good sportsmanship, and fair play in everyday living. Student Day is observed one day each year in our school. On this day, students take the place of the teachers. This gives the student an opportunity to evaluate the role of the teacher in the educational process. It tends to form a better understanding and relationship between teachers and pupils, and gives students another opportunity to exercise leadership and assume responsibilities. Many other activities can be used to teach these values.

The attitude of the principal and the teachers sets the atmosphere for understanding and accepting moral and spiritual values. Building good

school spirit and making the school a pleasant place to be are vital. Building attitudes toward good citizenship is essential today, but this does not go far enough. Good citizenship in terms of intelligent loyalty to moral and spiritual values as they apply to all learning is important in all aspects of human living.

The ultimate success of a program to develop moral and spiritual values depends largely on the teacher. Since school administrators place so much emphasis on character in their selection of teachers, they should encourage their teachers to use initiative and imagination in the development of their subject matter in ways which teach these values.

It is doubtful that offering courses in character education will secure the desired results. Evidence now available suggests that the procedure most likely to be effective in the teaching of moral and spiritual values is to weave these concepts into the entire life of the school and to make them a vital part of all subjects of instruction and activities in the school program.

Summary of the presentation made by WILLARD A. SABIN

LET it be said that the school program should provide multiple opportunities for worth-while experiences and growth of secondary-school youth. These opportunities in education should have been determined and should be constantly re-evaluated by lay, community, and professional people.

Now it appears to me that our problem for discussion is how to undergird this defensible program with the established and accepted moral and spiritual values without which education has little purpose. I say established and accepted because this land of ours became a nation when our founding fathers, with all wisdom and devotion, set up a means of government. This government was launched with the prayer that Almighty God would give His blessings and grant wisdom and understanding, will, and moral strength to men to the end that justice prevail and that mankind develop all God-given powers. This, the people of America have cherished and striven to maintain.

The public schools, you well know, were established and are maintained that the state, the country whose citizens support it, is maintained. We therefore are committed to the thesis, it appears to me without argument, that the responsibilities delegated to the administrative officers of our schools commit them to the establishment and maintenance of practices which will enhance in the lives of pupils the eternal values of life, essential to our community way of life. To do this *does* mean to stand

Willard A. Sabin is Principal of the Benjamin Franklin High School in Rochester, New York.

firmly and vigorously for an ethical, moral, and spiritual basis in all of education; it does *not* mean to support *any* particular religious belief.

Personally, by circumstances of birth and conviction, I am a Protestant, a Presbyterian. Under other circumstances I could be a Roman Catholic or a Jew. You will note I said "circumstances." I can in no way support those who speak of the "accident" of these fundamental human experiences. Whatever my religious belief, I believe that I must proudly declare my affiliation. I do not endeavor to convert those of other faiths—I respect them—cherish for them their right to their religious convictions. My point is—as we "proudly teach," we do not apologize for spiritual convictions; we are proud of them.

We hear these days of shortages of trained men in fields of mathematics and science—not enough engineers. Dr. Case, President of Colgate University, said at the annual meeting of the N. Y. S. A. S. S. P. in Syracuse, "We must see life clearly and see it whole [I believe, if my memory serves me rightly, Matthew Arnold said thus in his essay on "Criticism:" "All men should be critics—not those who complain or tear down, but should be men who see life clearly and see it whole."] Now back to Dr. Case—"Do we need men trained in mathematics and sciences—yes, but, how shall we have peace in the world without the spiritual values?"

I do not believe my assignment today is to speak longer of "the need"—but it is rather "the how" of securing understanding and acceptance of these basic values. May I say first that I, as an administrator—that I, as a high-school principal, must *be* the person by thought and act who is dedicated to these principles. Requesting or expecting from staff and pupils a code of conduct is not enough. Every pupil and teacher who knows me must be convinced that I *am* what I say I should be. Learning by precept and acceptance by concept are tied to inter-relational honesty and integrity.

Home, community, and school hold the responsibility for developing good citizens.

The teacher, parent, or leader must himself accept and exemplify moral and spiritual values.

Each and all experiences of high-school youth provide opportunities for development. Let me mention some: the classroom, athletic team, assembly, student association, club, and volunteer activity such as; corridor, traffic squad, library, supply store, hospital, and social center aide.

As one teacher said, "Without discipline, the greatest mind may abuse its knowledge; may not direct and utilize its powers for the good of society, but rather for its destruction. There is no greater joy than to see the child of yesterday grown into the man of today—rich in knowledge, clean and wholesome in every way, and thoroughly self-disciplined."

WHAT SHOULD WE DO ABOUT READING IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *Ralph E. Bauer*, Principal, Sequoia Junior High School, Los Angeles, California

DISCUSSANTS:

Wilmer H. Stiles, Principal, Phineas Davis Junior High School, York, Pennsylvania

Gustave Raitz, Principal, Woodland Junior High School, East Meadow, New York

Summary of the presentation made by HENRY T. HOGG

THE need for an adequate reading program in the junior high school is being recognized as an ever present problem in modern education. Historically the development of junior high school has, until recent years, pushed formal reading instruction as a part of the organized curriculum into the background. Under the 8-4 plan of school organization, reading was generally taught in the first eight grades. As the schools started shifting to the 6-3-3 and the 6-6 plans, reading was not widely taught as much as previously in grades seven through nine.

Now that the need of many students for instruction in the reading process from grade one through college has been demonstrated, the junior high-school principal must do something about it. He must sell the faculty, student body, and the community on a total reading program for the retarded, the accelerated, and all the pupils whose reading achievement levels fall in between the two extremes. It means spending more time in developing the reading process that was started in the elementary school and in far too many cases discontinued in the junior high-school grades.

As a practical illustration of improving reading instruction, the El Dorado schools started a reading improvement program in the elementary schools about five years ago. It was the differentiated approach in which pupils were grouped within the heterogeneous classroom according to their reading achievement determined by giving informal reading inventories. Reading consultants who are nationally recognized were engaged to conduct reading clinics at the beginning of each school term. The entire faculty of El Dorado schools attended the clinics, and parents were invited to the general sessions. For visiting teachers from other schools, reading demonstrations were conducted in the classrooms.

Henry T. Hogg is Principal of the El Dorado Junior High School in El Dorado, Arkansas.

As the program developed in the elementary schools, it was also introduced into the junior and senior high schools. In the seventh grade, the language arts program which had been taught one hour per day was increased to one hour for reading and spelling plus one hour for English and writing. For the eighth and ninth grades, remedial work was started for pupils with reading problems by placing them in special language arts classes. A pupil reading at the fourth-grade level was given material suited to his achievement level, and he was permitted to progress at his own rate.

Teachers are now experimenting with the differentiated approach in social studies and mathematics. Materials suitable to the various reading levels are being used. The practice of having a single text in a history class and requiring every student to read it regardless of his reading level is being discarded.

Although it takes several years for a reading program to be expanded to serve the needs of a junior high school and to train the personnel to carry on the program, it is easily sold to a community. One pupil working at his achievement level and enjoying the success that goes with it soon convinces a family that it is a sound practice. When the reading scores of a certain grade rise above the national norms, the teachers feel that their efforts are rewarded.

The International Reading Association is doing much to improve reading instruction at all levels from kindergarten to college. Many of the publishing houses are marketing suitable materials for those levels. Reading clinics, college courses, and an abundance of literature are available for the principal's use. His work on a developmental and remedial reading program will enrich the entire school curriculum. Teachers in the primary grades have been doing this for many years. When the junior high-school principal recognizes the fact that reading is a continuing process, he will then be ready to do something constructively about reading in his school.

Summary of the presentation made by ARNO JEWETT

HERE are a few things which we (meaning principals) should, I believe, do about reading in the junior high school.

First, we should initiate an in-service training program in reading if one is not already underway. There are several ways to get started. One is for the faculty as a whole to study the reading abilities of pupils as revealed by a testing program and as shown by an analysis of why some pupils are not achieving up to their capabilities in subjects requiring much reading. How much is poor reading ability affecting pupils'

Arno Jewett is Specialist for Language Arts in the Office of Education of the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare in Washington, D. C.

achievement in mathematics, science, social studies, and language arts? If your school is a typical one, there are probably more pupils of average and superior intelligence who are reading below their expectancy level than there are pupils of low intelligence. In fact, there are probably more of your slow junior high-school pupils who are reading up to their capacity—even though they are at the fifth-grade level or below—than any others.

A study of where your school is in reading will include much more than a diagnosis of test results and poor achievement. It may include a survey of reading resources. Certainly, you would want to find out through your librarian how much pupils read, what they read, and who reads.

After teachers in your in-service program have identified the reading needs of their pupils and have determined which pupils are most seriously retarded in terms of their social background and intellectual potentials, they and you must make important decisions concerning the reading program itself. A reading committee will help here. One of the first questions to study intensively is: Should a school-wide developmental reading program be initiated?

If the answer is "Yes, we want a developmental reading program"—which is what it should be—a host of questions pop up. Who is competent to plan, coordinate, and supervise such a program? What are the responsibilities of each subject matter teacher for developing reading skills? How are they defined? What should be done about the disabled readers—those whose level of reading achievement is considerably below their reading potential? Should remedial reading instruction be given by the regular teacher, the English teacher, or core teacher?

If the answer is "no" to the last question—and it will likely be "no"—another big question arises. It is this: How can we best provide for the disabled readers? Related to this question are many others: What should be done about the retarded reader who is doing the best he can, but who is still having trouble reading the typical course materials? What should be done about the very severely retarded reader?

The best answers to these questions are not always indicated by research or agreed upon by reading experts. If your teachers are to profit by an in-service program, they should relate these questions to local conditions and dig out the answers for themselves from the voluminous literature in the field. A first step may be to develop a professional library. With this and other resources, junior high-school teachers can develop their own reading program. However, I should like to give briefly my own answers to some of our questions.

Yes, a school-wide reading developmental program should be initiated under the direction of a reading specialist. Schools with such programs have found that they have fewer pupils failing in reading subjects and fewer retarded and disabled readers.

The next question, "What are the responsibilities of each subject matter teacher?" would require hundreds of pages to answer. At a U. S. Office of Education conference last December on "Improving Reading Throughout the Junior High School" several reading authorities and specialists in language arts, core, mathematics, and science emphasized that each subject matter teacher should assume responsibility for teaching vocabulary and certain reading skills essential to academic success in his subject.

Reading skills and competencies which each teacher should develop in pupils as needed within the subject area include the ability to:

1. Define and keep in mind one's reading purpose.
2. Adjust one's speed to purpose, style, and content.
3. Locate main ideas, including the author's purpose.
4. Distinguish between significant facts and minor or irrelevant details.
5. Recall main ideas and important details.
6. See cause-effect relationships.
7. Discover the author's qualifications and reputation.
8. Know how to locate information.
9. Read with critical alertness and judgment.
10. Draw sound inferences.
11. Realize the imperfections of verbal symbols as conveyers of meaning and understand the elementary principles of semantics.

How are the reading responsibilities of each teacher defined? They should be defined by the teacher himself with the aid of his students in terms of textbook and other printed assignments. Of course, each teacher may also get help from the professional literature. The most practicable suggestions may come from the reading specialist or full-time reading director employed by the school system.

What should be done about disabled readers who can do better? First, the disabled reader must be identified. Unfortunately, there does not seem to be any completely valid and satisfactory way of doing this. In general, a disabled reader is a pupil who scores and achieves lower in reading tests and reading content courses than one of his general intelligence, chronological age, and like background usually does.

Serious disciplinary cases, mentally retarded pupils, and severe emotional cases should hardly ever be placed in the reading improvement class. They and other cases with possible physical and neurological handicaps should be referred to a reading clinic for diagnosis and remedial treatment.

In reading improvement, as with other curricular change, the principal is the key person. He stimulates a desire for change, approves the purchase of reading materials, assigns personnel, allocates time for professional improvement, schedules reading classes, keeps open channels of communication, and supervises the program to see it through. No reading program can succeed without his leadership and support.

HOW CAN THE SCHOOL BEST PROVIDE FOR THE SLOW LEARNER?

CHAIRMAN: *Edson M. Bailey*, Principal, Manchester High School, Manchester, Connecticut

DISCUSSANTS:

Orlando Ortiz, Principal, Taos High School, Taos, New Mexico

Melvin Haugen, Principal, Jefferson Junior High School, Minneapolis, Minnesota

Summary of the presentation made by EDWIN B. KEIM

THE problem of the slow learner has been with us since the time when education was formalized. The problem has loomed larger in the American secondary school since 1920. Before that time, secondary schools were largely selective; the slow learner was eliminated from the school population. His fate after leaving school did not concern the educator. Since 1920, secondary education has become the right of an increasing number of young people of secondary-school age. This has been brought about by social demands and the compulsory school attendance laws. As a result of the popularization of secondary education, the slow learner has become a fixed part of secondary-school population.

Who are the slow learners? The slow learners form a group midway between average children and the mentally retarded. In the secondary-school population of the United States, the slow learner constitutes approximately twenty per cent of the whole. The percentage varies from school to school and it seems safe to assume that the number of slow learners is related to the economic level of the community which the school serves. However, all secondary schools have slow learners and must wrestle with the problem they present if the needs of all pupils are to be met.

Speaking from the experience of the staff with which I work, I must say it is easier to meet the needs of the gifted students than the needs of the slow learner. We point with pride to our program for the gifted. Although we have worked on the problem of the slow learner for the same length of time, we do not feel that we have aided the slow learner to the degree that we have aided our gifted students. Ours is a comprehensive high school; however, eighty per cent of our students pursue the academic course and seventy per cent attend college. In this situation the problem and plight of the slow learner stands out sharply. He is made to

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feel his inadequacy. This feeling of inadequacy is at times accentuated by his fellow students and at times by inept teachers.

Before proceeding to a discussion of how we have attempted to meet the needs of the slow learners, I would like to identify the group further. It is readily assumed that the academic achievement of the slow learner is usually low—especially in reading comprehension, vocabulary, and arithmetic reasoning. When he arrives in high school, he is as much as two years below normal grade achievement.

We must keep in mind that there is not a single type of slow learner. Roughly, they fall into three groups. Often characteristics of two groups appear in a single child. These groups are:

1. Those limited by inherited mental capacity. This child may want to learn, but his innate limited capacity has placed a ceiling on how much he can achieve.
2. Those borne with average or above average intelligence, but, because of barren home environments or because of emotional blocks, cannot achieve.
3. Those born with average or above average intelligence who have no interest in education as presented in school. This last group is often the more difficult to help. As long as a student is reaching up, the school has an even chance to help. When a student is reaching down, the school has one of its most baffling problems.

I shall now proceed to tell you what has been done in one school to help the slow learner. I present these ideas not as the best answers to the problem, but as the best answers we have been able to find up to this time.

First, a member of the guidance staff was assigned to work with the students of the group. In our school we have a director of guidance and also a class counselor for each grade level. The counselor who works with the slow learners, however, cuts across all three grades and has the lightest counseling load. He follows these pupils during the three years they are in high school.

Second, a committee was organized and called the Committee for the General Student. This committee meets regularly and considers the problems presented by the group. The name assigned to the committee "for the general student" was not a good one. We would like now to eliminate that term as it has come to have an unfortunate connotation.

We have found that one of our best sources of insight to the problems of the slow learner is the slow learner himself. From time to time we have met with groups of these students. In these meetings we have frankly discussed their problems, how they feel about their programs, their attitude toward the school, and have asked them for suggestions. It is our feeling that, if no other gain would have resulted from these meetings, the gain realized from the improved attitude of these students was in itself significant. After three years of studying the problem, the committee has established these general guides:

1. A special counselor should continue to work with slow learners.
2. A faculty committee should continue to study the problem. The committee should have continuity of membership, but the membership should not remain static.

3. The extremely slow learners should be placed on a special grading system. This means that they are graded either as satisfactory or unsatisfactory. Other slow-learners are graded on the same scale as that used for all students.

4. The more difficult group of slow learners should be grouped as far as possible. These groups should be small. The most successful teachers should be assigned to these groups.

5. Other slow learners should be assigned to regular classes and all care should be exercised so that they are in no way set apart from the rest of the student body.

The main advantages that have accrued from these adjustments are these:

1. The very slow learners are not frustrated by continuous failure.

2. The slow learners who have demonstrated their contempt for learning are grouped and, while a continuous attempt is made to meet their needs, they are not able to destroy the learning situation for others.

3. The large percentage of slow learners are not stigmatized or designated in any way. Their needs are met within the program of the larger student population.

Summary of the presentation made by CARL F. HANSEN

THERE are several hopeful elements in the statement of the question for discussion. In the front rank of these is the assumption that the school does have a responsibility for the education of the slow learner. Almost as significant in the treatment of the problem is the implied idea that these young men and women are learners; that is, they are capable of responding to instruction although at a relatively slow rate.

WHO ARE THE SLOW LEARNERS

The slow learner is commonly identified as one who according to objective measures is seriously retarded in the language arts and mathematics fields. His retardation is generalized or patterned relative to these subject fields, rather than specific and limited to one of the sub-skills such as correctness of expression or accuracy in spelling. In identifying the slow learners for special instruction in areas of academic retardation, the schools should not make the mistake of believing it to be an automatic sequel of this condition that they are also retarded in social, physical, and emotional growth.

Labelling, grouping, and administering a special instructional program should be consistent with the identified areas of retardation, so it is said of a student, "He is a slow learner in mathematics or in reading, or both," rather than simply identifying him in a general sense as a slow-learner. The condition of slow-learning may prevail in important areas other than the academic, but our traditional preoccupation with this facet of

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education has prevented the necessary study of such problems. No one, for example, who is brilliant or even average in mathematics is considered a slow learner if he is excessively retarded in the use of a hammer and saw, yet that retardation may be symptomatic of an emotional condition which may later nullify the skills in mathematics.

A student may be severely retarded in social growth, for example, his skill in getting along with people, and yet be quite successful in academic studies. The avoidance of categorical thinking about slow learners is highly necessary to assure: (1) a broadened recognition of the condition, (2) a careful identification and delimitation of needs, and (3) the development of a program of instruction directed toward those needs.

WHY SLOW LEARNERS?

They were made, you will say, by nature and our job is mainly to work with what we get in the schools and, if we do the best we can, be satisfied. A student may be a slow learner simply because he likes it that way, or at least, has no motivation to change. In all likelihood he is not even conscious of a negative attitude toward middle class values represented in doing tests well or studying at home nights, especially when his home is such that he couldn't possibly study anyhow.

WHAT CURRICULUM FOR SLOW LEARNERS?

Adopted only last year, the District of Columbia's four-track program for the senior high schools includes what is called the basic curriculum for high-school students at below sixth-grade level in reading and arithmetic. The basic sequence may be followed to graduation if the student is not able to remove his educational deficiencies and transfer to the general or college preparatory program. In this way, then, a special educational pattern has been established to allow the slow learner successfully to complete four years of high-school education, if he grows at his level and in accordance with his potential. To receive a diploma, he must complete sixteen Carnegie units, plus one and one-half units in physical education. His required program will include four units of English (reading, spelling, writing) two and one-half units in social studies, including problems in daily living, and one each of arithmetic, business in daily living, and science in daily living. The remainder of needed credits will be earned in electives, including shop and home economics. Students in basic may elect school-work experience for up to six units, if work placement on a half-day schedule can be arranged with a cooperating employer. This curriculum is offered in all senior high schools requiring it.

WHERE SHOULD THEY BE TAUGHT?

In the democratic public high schools, no bars against the admission of pupils because of personal characteristics can be tolerated, unless the pupil needs or wants a program of studies not available to him in his local

school. The justification for the self-contained high school is a very simple one: The adjustment of program offerings to the needs of all pupils within a given school is found to be advantageous to pupils and to the community.

In the process of curriculum adjustment much improvement is indicated. The common practice of piece-meal changes in course offerings should be replaced by a systematic reconstruction of the total curriculum. For students who want specialized occupational or vocational instruction that cannot be made available in each comprehensive high school, special schools may be justified if the demand is sufficient to warrant the costs.

WHAT SPECIAL TEACHING TECHNIQUES ARE NEEDED?

Students who are normal or above in learning capability are often to some extent self-learners. They grow in spite of bad teaching; they learn from environment, interaction with like-minded students if the teacher does nothing more than provide the setting for learning. But the slow learner must have effective teaching if he is to progress. These suggestions as to methodology are applicable to all good teaching, but are especially needed in the education of slow learners:

1. Find the student's center of interest.
2. Be definite in making assignments.
3. Make connections between the lesson and experience. Any good teacher is an expert at connection-making.
4. Repeat for over-mastery.
5. Respect, do not patronize, the slow learner as a person.
6. Use all known avenues to learning.
7. Be sure the student feels successful.

SUMMARY

Providing adequately for the slow learner, thus, means careful identification and analysis as the starting point, the tailoring of instruction and curriculum to fit the discovered needs (including special programs for the problem and the reluctant learner and for the maladjusted learner), establishing such programs in the community schools except where special offerings that cannot economically be duplicated in each comprehensive high school are needed, providing for work-experience for some students, and sharpening up teaching methods for better educational results.

HOW CAN THE PRINCIPAL PROMOTE PROFESSIONAL GROWTH IN THE STAFF?

CHAIRMAN: *Samuel Engle Burr, Jr.*, Chairman, Department of Education, American University, Washington, D. C.

DISCUSSANTS:

W. H. Millsaps, Principal, Central High School, Chattanooga, Tennessee

Robert K. Sorensen, Principal, Iowa City High School, Iowa City, Iowa
Sister Mary Janet, S. C., Secondary-School Curriculum Consultant, Commission on American Citizenship, Catholic University of America, Washington, D. C.

Summary of the presentation made by WILBUR H. MARSHALL

IN CONSIDERING the role of the principal in promoting professional growth in the staff, there are three basic assumptions I am going to make: *first*, the purpose for which the secondary schools exist is to provide desirable learning experiences for all youth of high-school age; *second*, there is certain basic information teachers need to teach youth; and *third*, the principal is the educational leader and is responsible for the educational program in his school.

The assumption that the principal is responsible for the educational program carries the implication that he occupies the most strategic position of educational leadership of anyone working in the field of education. The primary and most important responsibility of the principal is to give leadership in the development of the best possible program of education for his school.

Concepts concerning administration have changed considerably in recent years. Democratic processes of administration are being accepted in enlightened business and industry as well as in education. It is now widely recognized that the authoritarian administrator has no place in education for young citizens in a democracy. There is one point, however, where the principal has a right to be arbitrary. He has a right to expect that members of the teaching profession will work to improve education.

Principals are always facing the recurring question: What kinds of help do teachers need? *First*, they need certain basic information and help in order to work effectively. Teachers need help in improving their instructional skills. Technical skill is essential to success in any profession.

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Teachers also need help with administrative routine. It is desirable for the principal to acquaint teachers with the method used in reporting pupil progress, textbook accounting, keeping attendance records, and the many other routine functions of school operation. Teachers need help in becoming better acquainted with their pupils. Social insight on the part of the teacher is as essential and significant as the techniques used in the classroom. Teachers should be given information concerning the human and natural resources available in the community and how to utilize these resources effectively.

Second, teachers must be made to feel they are truly participating in planning and carrying out the educational program of the school. Programs for improvement in any secondary school should be planned and carried out in accordance with the principles of the democratic process. This requires participation in planning by teachers. The principal makes a fatal error when he uses arbitrary methods to initiate or to carry out projects. The same is true when he employs a method of "selling ideas" to initiate or to carry out a project. At best these methods win no more than the passive cooperation of teachers; at worst, they engender active resistance.

Third, in order to help teachers work effectively, the principal must create a harmonious atmosphere within the school. He should maintain cordial relationship with the staff, being interested in them individually as well as professionally and constantly alert to the necessity of giving the staff security as they undertake new tasks. He must select and work with his staff, recognizing their viewpoints and talents and coordinating these so that each individual contributes his full measure to the best possible educational program.

The determination or choice of specific activities for school improvement is crucial. The tendency to plunge into activity without sufficient prior analysis should be guarded against. The number of things which might be done to improve conditions of living or learning in any community is always large. The principal has the responsibility of leading teachers into determining the specific purposes they should pursue and in selecting appropriate activities leading to these purposes. The process whereby this goal is achieved is essentially one of disclosing alternatives to action and exploring these alternatives with the teacher concerned. This is a difficult task.

The principal wins no victory when he succeeds in committing a group of teachers to a course of action either by imposing or "selling" his ideas. A real victory comes when the principal succeeds in getting a group of teachers to accept, as their own, a line of action. This condition is not a product of counting noses or making arbitrary administrative decisions. It is a product of honest participation.

Summary of the presentation made by BURTON W. GORMAN

THE American high-school principal occupies one of the most difficult and exacting positions in our educational structure. He serves the institution of learning that is the most distinctively American, yet it is so young that its role has not yet been clearly and completely defined. In its short history, this institution has been pre-occupied by two overlapping Herculean tasks of absorption: that of increasing hordes of students and that of a rapidly expanding diversity of program, both in the curricular and in the extracurricular.

Perhaps no prior institution in educational history has been called upon to meet these challenges on a comparable scale. It is, therefore, not at all surprising that the quality of the school's program and product should have been sacrificed, too often, to these compelling forces of qualification. Any substantial progress which the high school makes in the near future must be based upon an honest facing of these facts. Teachers are generally not well oriented, historically and philosophically, in their cooperative efforts to make the school more effective. Such a state of mind is prerequisite to professional growth. If things are to be better, there must be appreciation and understanding of present weaknesses and of future potential. Three specific suggestions for bringing about such increased professional alertness are listed below:

1. As principal, re-examine your own professional perspective as demonstrated in performance. The very best way to promote professional growth is to demonstrate it. Examine your time budget. How much of it is assigned to the consideration of broad, long-range issues? How much to petty administrative detail? The circus-manager duties must be handled, but the principal who is really interested in growth finds that the side-shows can be delegated, leaving him time to reshape the program under the main tent. What about your own professional reading? Do you read three times as many professional books and articles as your most alert teacher? What portion of your time, thought, and energy is given exclusively to the supervision of instruction?

2. Encourage regular, intensive, professional reading and discussion of what is read by faculty members. Such discussions may call for radical changes in the pattern of faculty meetings. This type of discussion cannot take place in a large group; it cannot be developed in the four o'clock meeting. It might take place in an occasional small-group meeting held in the principal's or a faculty member's home, where social compatibility may flourish as a by-product. It might take place among faculty members who have common "free" or planning periods during the school day.

Burton W. Gorman is Head of the Department of Secondary Education in Kent State University, Kent, Ohio.

Such books as Whitehead's *Aims of Education*, Montagu's *On Being Human*, Hechinger's *An Adventure in Education*, or Ulich's *The Human Career* make excellent subjects for cooperative faculty study.¹ Carefully selected articles hold potential for this type of professional development, too.

3. Out of such an example and out of such experiences as those suggested above should emerge broad, significant questions which are crying for answers in today's high school. These questions call for further discussion, faculty committees charged with bringing forth specific recommendations, after having consulted with parent and other community groups, and broad experiment with tentative solutions. Such questions might include the following, but would certainly vary from school to school: How can we provide all students with more practice in speaking and writing their language? How can we guide more of our superior students into college? Shall we have an honors diploma and to whom shall it be issued? How can we more fully challenge our brightest pupils, in whom loafing is most socially hurtful? How can we match the social climax of the senior year with an equally robust scholastic climax? Do we need today to supplement the Carnegie unit with some additional measures of fitness for graduation?

Teachers can become convinced that persistent wrestling with basic issues makes the job more interesting and gains for them professional respect. Interest begets interest, study and discussion give birth to new insight, and boredom is replaced by vitality and enthusiasm. The principal who leads his staff in the consideration of major issues will find that they are not so likely to keep him involved in petty minutia.

¹The writer will send an annotated bibliography for faculty study to any principal or teacher who requests it.

HOW CAN WE PROVIDE AN ACTIVITY PROGRAM FOR ALL JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS?

CHAIRMAN: *I. Paul Handwerk*, Principal, Northeast Junior High School, Bethlehem, Pennsylvania

DISCUSSANTS:

Wallace Ludden, Principal, Rome Junior High School, Rome New York

H. C. Whitlow, Jr., Principal, Booker T. Washington High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma

Summary of the presentation made by **FRANK B. TUPPER**

THERE has been a rapid expansion in the activity program of the junior high school during the past twenty-five years. This expansion has been a result of changing social and civic patterns in our society. The realization of the need for an extensive activity program is universally accepted by educators throughout our country.

Unfortunately, an inordinate amount of time and energy on the part of both teachers and pupils has been directed toward the lavish production of dramatic shows, toward the creation of superlative band organizations, and toward the maintaining of winning athletic teams. This, under the disguise of an activity program, has found favor with the community. Too often, when the principal of the school examines the activity program, he discovers that too few are doing much and too many are not doing at all.

A principal faced with the reality of existing conditions and stirred with the hope of providing for all may find it helpful to be guided by the following fundamental principles:

1. *A Clarification of the Purposes and Benefits of an Activity Program Should Be Instituted for All Teachers.*

No program will proceed far or gain much success unless it has the full cooperation and complete understanding of the faculty. The teachers are the representatives of the school in the realm of public relations with the pupils and with the parents of the community. It is vital that all the faculty possess a clear understanding as to the value and need of an extensive program. Some teachers view the activity program as a necessary inducement to ease the task of the curriculum. The activity program is considered a sort of an award or an incentive that will help stimulate the students to do school work. Therefore, the justifiable purposes of an activity program must be clearly recognized and indorsed by the entire faculty.

Frank B. Tupper is Principal of the Lincoln Junior High School in Portland, Maine.

2. The Selection of Sponsors for the Activity Program Should Be Well-Qualified Faculty Members.

All teachers should participate as sponsors in the activity program. A good teacher has many interests and abilities sustained by valuable experiences that should find expression in working with junior high-school students. Often, an activity program provides the challenge, the opportunity, and the stimulation that teachers need to enhance their classroom subjects. Teachers who understand and believe in the activity programs will gladly volunteer as sponsors. When this spirit prevails among members of the faculty, an in-service training program for the purpose of producing better qualified sponsors should be easily inaugurated.

3. A Varied Activity Program Should Be Planned by a Committee Selected from the Teachers, the Pupils, and the Parents.

Parents have a definite interest and many are anxious and willing to give generously of their time and talents. The students should certainly have a part in planning the program. Representatives from the three groups would form a committee whose function would be to charter or initiate new clubs or organizations which presented evidence of definite purposes and pupil interests as well as revoke charters of clubs or organizations in which the pupil interest has disappeared and no reason for existence other than tradition is apparent. The existence of parents on the committee should help obviate the the vociferous demands of minority pressure groups. An appreciation of the total activity program is easier to achieve if more people are involved in the formation of it.

4. Volunteer Participation of Students in the Activity Program Is an Essential Phase in Attempting To Obtain the Desired Goal of Full Participation.

The selection of an activity should be based on the pupil's needs, interests, and abilities. Therefore, the school should offer an intensive as well as an extensive program. All students should be informed as to the variety and scope of the program. Handbooks are invaluable in achieving this aim. Supplementation should be through appropriate assemblies, home-room discussions, and special exhibits. The final selection should be made by the pupil after careful guidance. Care should be taken not to coerce pupils into numerous activities because of their ability to excel in many fields of endeavor. This emphasis on outstanding performance rather than outstanding participation can often mislead teachers and principal. The concentration of excessive demands on a few talented students results in neglect of school work and begets animosity in other students desirous for an opportunity. This glorification of talented pupils at the expense of less capable pupils vitiates the purpose of an extensive activity program. If the activity is worth-while and is understood and appreciated by the community, then financial support should emanate from the board of education so that no deserving student is deprived of his just opportunity.

5. A Realization by the Community That a Complete Activity Program for All Students Requires a Longer School Day and a Greater Work Load on the Teachers.

A definite period of time should be allocated in the daily schedule. This may be a regular period or it may be staggered in time such as would be achieved by a rotating schedule. Some activities should be consolidated in the regular class period. Others should utilize the regular assigned activity period. A program that has gained success in many schools is one period for assemblies, two periods for clubs and organizations and two periods for intramural athletics during the week.

Teachers participating in the longer school day with the supplemental services should receive higher salaries than now in effect. The community should realize that a program that provides more services rightfully elicits more financial support not only for personnel but also for physical facilities. The success of an inclusive activity program demands constant evaluation by all concerned. The principal accepts the responsibility, but may delegate duties and work to a director of the program. The director should supervise, coordinate, and articulate all phases in order to reach all students.

We must provide the opportunity for the students to experience the social and civic learnings inherent in an activity program. In the future, our society will enjoy more leisure time for all people. Will our society use leisure time for watching and being a spectator to life's activities or will our society use leisure time for doing and becoming a "doer" in the varied activities of the good life?

Summary of the presentation made by EDGAR G. JOHNSTON

IT IS almost fifty years since the first junior high school saw the light of day and the vigor and experimentalism of youth may, in some cases, have degenerated into the conservatism and subservience to convention of mature adulthood. Unquestionably, some junior high schools have been in the forefront of experimentalism and application to the school program of recent findings in psychology, child development, and study of the community. In any case it is wise for the junior high school to prepare to celebrate its half century of existence by a thoughtful appraisal of its program and achievements in the light of the purposes it was designed to serve.

Exploration was a primary purpose in the organization of the junior high school—exploration of pupil interests, of possible areas of learning, in methods of instruction and organization. It was natural that much of the development of the so called "extra curricular activities"—clubs,

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student councils, assembly programs—should have occurred in the junior high school. It is natural, too, that integration of activities into the total school program has been most effectively developed at this level. The great majority of the "core programs" are to be found in junior high schools. Underlying all of this development has been the purpose of "bridging the gap" between elementary schools and high schools, thereby making the transition to the senior high school easier and retaining more pupils in school for a longer period of time.

And yet there has been disturbing evidences that the purposes of the junior high school have not been achieved to the extent desired. The Regents' Inquiry in New York State revealed that three out of five young people did not stay in school to complete the secondary-school years. In some cases (with the aid of compulsory attendance laws) we seem to have bridged the gap from the sixth to the seventh grade, only to create a more serious one in later grades. Whatever has served to retain early enthusiasm for school and to make the program fit the wide variety of individual differences we face in increasing degree is worth-while. Student activities offer a hopeful lead for achieving these results.

Today's discussion is concerned with providing an activity program which should suit *all* students. The following suggestions are based on the successful experience of some schools in approximating this goal. The program needs to be based on a realistic study of the needs and interests of the junior high-school pupil. Sometimes teachers or principals say "A lot of our students aren't interested in anything." Perhaps what we really mean is that they are not interested in the things we are. Pupils of the junior high-school age, except where there is a pathological lack of energy, are bursting with interests.

The more we come to know pupils individually and the closer rapport built up between teacher and pupil, the more opportunities we will have to discover real interests and to provide activity to give them outlet. This basic approach can be supplemented by a survey of interest in various activities. Such a survey might well be a project of the student council. It should also discover what activities individual pupils are engaged in now. Often the enthusiasm of some pupils and the vigor of some activities may obscure the fact that many pupils are not reached at all. It is probably the rare school that knows the extent to which its activity program is really reaching the entire student body.

That program is likely to be most creative and most effective in reaching all pupils in which pupil initiative is tapped. Children are the original "do-it-yourself club" members. The best situation for learning is one in which the learner is involved in the planning. A basic role in this planning can be played by a vigorous and active student council.

No program begins to reach all pupils until special attention is paid to the antagonistic or disinterested. An effective guidance program (in-

volving all teachers as members of the guidance team) is indispensable for locating these individuals and for understanding the reasons which exclude them.

Sometimes pupils are kept at home to assist in home duties and cannot participate in after-school activities. A change in scheduling may be necessary to reach them. Often they may be vaguely conscious of a lack of acceptance by other pupils. Here the climate of the school is important. A democratic atmosphere which gives everyone a sense of belonging will reduce drastically the number of non-participants.

A continuous evaluation is essential to keep a program vital and healthy. A club may have ceased to maintain the vitality it once showed, and new interests of pupils may arise which could find outlet in new activities. (This doesn't mean that they have to have Elvis Presley Clubs in the junior high school!) A joint pupil-teacher committee on student activity is a good approach to such evaluation. It might well be one of the most vigorous committees of the student council. In any case, the staff as a whole should be concerned to make continuous appraisal of the effectiveness of this important phase of the total educational program of the school.

This leads to my final point that there is no substitute for a staff of devoted teachers with abiding faith in young people and concerned to see that enriching experiences are available to all. An encouraging attitude on the part of a school staff is likely to be reflected in better pupil morale and increased learning in the classroom as well as in student activities. In fact where such a spirit exists, the dividing line between classroom and extra classroom activity may tend to disappear. When we are concerned with pupil growth in all aspects of learning we will use all available opportunities for stimulating that growth.

HOW CAN THE SUPERVISORY RESPONSIBILITY OF THE PRINCIPAL BECOME MAXIMALLY EFFECTIVE?

CHAIRMAN: *Oral W. Spurgeon*, Director of Supervisors, State Department of Education, Jefferson City, Missouri

DISCUSSANTS:

Lawrence J. Kozal, Principal, Central Junior High School, Muskegon, Michigan

Peter C. McConarty, Principal, Oliver Ames High School, North Easton, Massachusetts

Summary of the presentation made by ROBERT C. CAWRSE

THE title of this presentation assumes that the principal does have the responsibility for supervision in his school and the question is how to make it most effective. It would be impossible in a presentation of this length to cover all phases of supervision, if we accept the broad definition of supervision as anything that improves instruction. With this thought in mind, I shall limit myself to a discussion of three areas where the principal may improve the effectiveness of his supervision.

The first of these areas is the problem of morale among the members of the teaching staff. This is intangible in many ways and yet is easy to recognize when present, and glaringly apparent when absent. The principal who knows his teachers personally and becomes acquainted with their problems both in and out of the school has taken the first step towards the proper rapport necessary for the establishment of good morale. The principal should make every effort to know the work his staff is doing and commend them whenever possible. A little praise does much to raise the spirits of the staff and, in most cases, results in increased effort.

Another way to aid in building morale is to be sure that teaching assignments and activities assignments are made in line with the interests and preparation of the teacher. The work load should be reasonable and as uniform as possible throughout the staff. The faculty should know that the principal will publicly support them when necessary and speak to them privately when he questions their judgment. These are just a few of the many ways in which the principal may aid in raising the morale of the staff.

The second area in which the principal needs to become more effective is in visiting the classroom. Most principals will admit that this is important, but usually say they do not have time to visit as much as they would like. Many times this is an indication of poor organization along

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with the failure to recognize the importance of making these visits as compared to other routine duties. The principal cannot be effective in his supervisory responsibility if he fails in this phase of supervision. Routine work should be delegated to others to make time for this function. Perhaps the most effective approach to the class visit is to set a time mutually agreeable so the teacher may appear at his best. This not only puts the teacher more at ease, but also results in strengthening the feeling that his prime reason for the visit is to help in any way he can. The class visit must be followed up with a personal conference. This is the time to commend and suggest and strengthen the feeling of cooperation between the principal and teacher.

The third area of supervision in which the principal should become more effective is in planning and conducting professional faculty meetings. This one tool can be an effective way of improving the quality of instruction if it is well organized and used properly. If possible, some school time should be used as well as some of the teachers time. Perhaps school could be dismissed a half hour or more early if the meeting ordinarily lasts from one to two hours. A short period for refreshments at the beginning will help relax the faculty and put them in a better frame of mind for the work ahead. This is particularly true if the meeting is held at the close of the school day.

Items which could be given to the teachers in bulletin form should be avoided in faculty meetings and the time should be spent in discussions that promote the professional growth of the staff. An agenda should be prepared and, if possible, should be given to the staff the day before the meeting. If any items on the agenda call for extensive preparation, the people involved should be given ample notice. Democratic procedures should prevail at all times, and participation of the staff should be encouraged. A time limit should be set and held to as closely as possible. Above all, the principal should resist the temptation to do all the talking.

Summary of the presentation made by THOMAS J. HOLMES

THE most important phase of a principal's work is the supervision of instruction, for it is through this responsibility that he reaches the students and insures their proper development. I like to feel that supervision takes on a much broader meaning than the mere observation of classroom teaching; that it means assistance given the teacher in all aspects of his work—classroom, extracurricular, informal contacts with pupils and guidance. It means the constant and conscious effort to see that the growth of the students is continually nurtured.

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A principal must budget his time and strive to live within that budget. Some of the many administrative details may be delegated; others, of necessity, must be cared for by him as they arise. It is the job of the principal to set a time schedule and follow it as far as practicable, realizing that it will be possible to stay only within reasonable distance of it. He, too, must determine the relative importance of certain administrative tasks as compared to the supervisory work.

Just as the principal expects the teacher to have a lesson plan, so should he have a plan for supervision. This should be a plan for his general program and one for each teacher. A supervisor should never visit, confer, or take any other supervisory action without knowing in advance, (a) what he hopes to accomplish by such action, (b) how he will proceed, (c) what tools he will need, and (d) what he will do in the way of follow-up. The principal needs to know the teacher, what kind of preparation he has, what his experience has been, what type of relationship he has to his pupils, if he is dynamic or lazy, if he is interested in people, and what is his history as far as his work in the particular school is concerned or with the problem at hand. The principal should familiarize himself with the records of previous visits, conferences, *etc.*

Preparation should include a study of the class or group under the charge of the particular teacher—is it homogeneous, is it of high, low, or average ability, what have been its accomplishments. As principal, is he familiar with the course of study so that he may know if it is being followed? He does not have to be nor can he be expected to be familiar with the subject matter in all fields, but he must be able, in general terms of supervision, to know where the teacher is and if the instruction given is reaching the pupils. In order to be sure that the program of supervision is being maximally effective, the principal should analyze himself and determine his attitude toward it. Does he go through the bare minimum motions of class visitation only because he knows he is expected to supervise or because he must have some basis for rating his teachers, or does he sincerely believe that he is the educational leader in his building and, as such, must see that each youngster leaving his school does so with the maximum in instruction both formal and informal. If the latter is true, the principal will plan each supervisory move—yes, and each administrative move—so that it will contribute to his objective of a functioning and worth-while program of improvement of instruction.

The principal must, as educational leader, develop in his teachers an attitude of wholehearted, willing cooperation. He must be able to make even the most skeptical among them see the worth of the program and realize that it is for the purpose of improving the whole educational process and not just to "get something on them."

An effective program of supervision does not leave a situation dangling, or does it merely assume a critical attitude. Conferences must be held to

point out strengths and give praise, to point out weaknesses and suggest remedies. The principal and teacher together usually can work out means of best utilizing strengths and means of correcting weaknesses. Perhaps a demonstration on the part of the principal is the answer, perhaps a visit by the teacher to the class of another teacher will help, possibly participation in club work or some other form of extracurricular work, or maybe showing the teacher how to get along with youngsters and how to develop the ability to get down and talk with them about their everyday affairs and interests will help. The principal must be ready at all times to give assistance. In order to be most effective in his supervisory responsibilities, the principal must believe in the program, be able to develop it, and be able to sell it to his teachers.

WHAT EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM IS NEEDED IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *James C. Scott*, Principal, Whitthorne Junior High School, Columbia, Tennessee

DISCUSSANTS:

Willard R. Beck, Principal, Central Junior High School, Sheridan, Wyoming

Mrs. Rose L. Schwab, Principal, Michael Friedsam Junior High School, Brooklyn, New York

Summary of the presentation made by LLOYD Y. THAYER

THE junior high school evolved as an institution conceived to meet the unique physical, social, emotional, and intellectual needs of the late preadolescent and early adolescent. The junior high school has experienced developmental conflicts with both the elementary school and the secondary school. This necessity to justify the uniqueness of the junior high school should be no cause for alarm unless educators expend their energies in protracted consideration of organization types to the neglect of the educational program which the organization is designed to facilitate.

Within the chronological age span of junior high-school pupils there is more variation and range in growth characteristics and needs than during any other three-year period in school life. It is mandatory that teachers and administrators understand the growth and development of these

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youngsters in order that the educational program may provide experiences and activities which will meet their developmental needs.

The junior high-school program should reflect this knowledge of the physical characteristics of the age group being served. Not only should the wide general developmental factors be met, but provision should also be made for individual growth patterns which are in considerable variance from those of the group. The school schedule and the instructional program should intersperse work with moments of relaxation in deference to the fatigue factor; planned activities which develop body coordination help reduce the clumsy physical acts of this age thereby lessening embarrassment and its defensive responses of rudeness, rebellion, and insubordination.

The social and emotional needs of the junior high-school age have many implications for the educational program. These are the years when group work is so essential and when group opportunities are legion. Dramatics, chorus, band, orchestra, the school paper, intramurals, non-dating social events, clubs, discussions, classroom committee work, science fairs, art fairs, talent shows, interviews, hobby interests, are some of the possibilities available. The program should guide pupils into analyzing responsibilities, in setting standards, and in evaluating their effectiveness in carrying responsibilities. Group work provides opportunities for the development of social behavior. When boys and girls work together, they learn the values inherent in the opposite sex. It is clearly evident that group participation develops leadership and followership; it is equally true that group work provides opportunities for individuals to succeed without slavish conformity to mass standards.

A strong intramural program contributes to physical, social, and emotional needs. It provides release of energy, channels the competitive spirit, and guards against the physical exploitation of a highly competitive sports program. It has the advantages of broad participation and brief periods of active competition interspersed with frequent opportunity for spectator enjoyment. It can be conducted with a minimum of equipment and facilities; it avoids the problems of transportation and travel incident to inter-school competition; and it has the advantages of formal athletics with few of the disadvantages so frequently associated with formal athletics.

The intellectual needs of junior high-school youngsters can be met best through a program which is active rather than passive. Learning experiences to be challenging must be creative and stimulating, investigative and communicative. School-wide, there should be a program of challenging experiences which will utilize the emotional energies of this marvelous and transitory age. To be effective, this program philosophy must permeate the classroom work. Pupil-teacher relationships are enhanced through experimenting, investigating, conferring, mutual goal-setting, planning, evaluating progress and failure, use of group purposes,

growth in self-directing, and evaluation of behavior as it affects group accomplishment. This type of instructional program will reduce the impact of unacceptable pupil behavior upon teacher poise, emotional balance, and security. Although they lack experience, junior high-school boys and girls are capable of increased intellectual stimulation. They come to desire more adequate data before conclusions are drawn, to have greater respect for group structures, and to concentrate for longer periods. To achieve these developments they need assistance in setting attainable goals, in acquiring good work habits, and in evaluating their learning experiences.

The educational program outlined above calls for superior administration. Unfortunately, factors of competency in administration have not been validated scientifically, but area studies now underway are shedding much light on our needs. One of the rapidly emerging validations is the need for administrative apprenticeship under an experienced and competent principal. In a recent personal research project involving 149 administrators in eleven states, not one had had apprentice experience prior to his first principalship. By the nature of the job requirements, even the finest classroom experience cannot adequately prepare the administration major for maximum efficiency as a principal. The educational program cannot rise above the philosophy and the implementation provided administratively by the junior high-school principal. Few of us were fortunate enough to be trained in the work.

No educational program is stronger than the instructional staff. The preparation of teachers for the intermediate school has been neglected. Considerable research has gone into problems arising from expansion in the early grades and from exhaustive curriculum studies in secondary schools. Staff problems and programs of teacher education have also received attention at these levels. Comparatively little research and study have gone into the problems of grades seven, eight, and nine. Especially is this true with reference to teacher education and staff placement. Less than one fourth the states issue junior high-school teaching certificates; many states permit holders of elementary certificates to teach in grades seven and eight; and almost all states permit holders of high-school certificates to teach in the junior high school. Thus the teaching staff moves in a twilight zone of preparation for junior high-school instruction. Broad, liberal education is preferable to extreme subject specialization in the preparation of junior high-school teachers, who must have knowledge of both the elementary and secondary programs and be master of some of the techniques for teaching in each. The adequate junior high school program meets the needs of the age group, is taught inspirationally, and is administered well.

Summary of the presentation made by JOHN V. MAIER

THE junior high school varies according to the viewpoint of people in different localities. The common conception of a junior high school is an independent, separate school of grades 7, 8, and 9. Many junior high schools with 7th, 8th, and 9th grades operate with the philosophy, aims, and purposes of the senior high school in their ninth grade. The junior high school, as an independent school, must fill the gap and make the necessary transition between the elementary school and the senior high school.

It accepts all pupils from the elementary school regardless of their academic achievement. It accepts all pupils as they are and where they are. Many pupils are promoted from the elementary school not because of academic achievement, but because of age, size, and wordly knowledge. The educational program of the junior high school must take all of these pupils where they are and give them an opportunity to improve. The school register will show these pupils as seventh-, eighth-, or ninth-grade pupils, but the work they do might be any level from the fourth grade to the tenth grade. The junior high school must take the pupil of superior academic achievement, give him inspiration, basic training, and the foundation for a superior performance in high school, college, and business or industry.

Our state (Indiana) has a compulsory school attendance law until the age of sixteen years. Therefore, the junior high school becomes the social agency to take care of the custodial group—the group of pupils who are marking time until the golden age of sixteen when they can legally drop out of school. The junior high school must provide a program of every conceivable type for these pupils.

The junior high school is a cross section of society. What is found in the junior high school is also found in the community. The pupils reflect the ideas, attitudes, conduct, and standards of home and community. It tries to foster ideas and attitudes and to encourage a standard of conduct that is acceptable to the masses of society. It shall continue to work with these special pupils and the parents or guardians, and, when necessary, refer them to the proper authorities.

It is concerned and will do everything possible to establish in every pupil the will to work, to co-operate, to respect authority and property, and to be a law-abiding citizen. The junior high-school administrator must be interested in all types of students and all departments or areas in his school. It is a terminal school for many pupils and must provide an educational program for them. It also must provide the basic training for those who continue their educational careers.

John V. Maier is Principal of the Wilson Junior High School in Muncie, Indiana.

If the educational program of a junior high school is to provide all things for all pupils, there is a tendency to do nothing well. It is well for every department or area to decide upon some things and say, "This one thing we do." However, it must be remembered that subject matter can not complete the educational program alone. It requires specially trained teachers.

The subject matter or curriculum becomes debatable and questionable if it has the responsibility of training all types of pupils in the junior high school. Wilson Junior High School of Muncie has six academic periods per day of 55 minutes each. The book rental system is used, with each room building a room library for the different grade levels and the abilities of the pupils going to that room. The following table gives the subject matter in each grade and the number of times per week it is given.

7th		8th		9th	
English	5	English	5	English	5
Math.	5	Math.	5	General Math.	
				or	
General Science	5	General Science	5	Algebra	5
Social Science	5	Social Science	5	Biology	5
Industrial Arts		Industrial Arts		Industrial Arts	
or		or		or	
Home Economics	5	Home Economics	5	Home Economics	5
Physical Education	2½	Physical Education	2½	Physical Education	2½
Art or Music	2½	Art or Music	2½	Guidance	2½
				<i>Elect One</i>	
				Extra Home Economics	
				Extra Industrial Arts	
				Glee Club, Orchestra, Band,	
				Art	

The orchestra and band draws pupils from all three grade levels. Pupils from the seventh and eighth grades substitute band or orchestra for music and physical education. Business education and languages are left for the senior high-school level.

WHAT IS THE ROLE OF THE WIFE OF THE PRINCIPAL IN THE SCHOOL COMMUNITY?

CHAIRMAN: *Mrs. George E. Shattuck*, Norwich, Connecticut

Summary of the presentation made by **MRS. BERNHARDT L. BERGSTROM**

THE title, "The Role of the Wife of the Principal," contains in it the potentialities for an infinite number of responses. What any wife does and how she behaves are determined by her own perception or conception of herself and her abilities. This is not unlike the role of any other wife. Her behavior probably has much of its origin in childhood where qualities of character are developed and firmly rooted. The way she acts will be determined largely by her concept of her husband's work, his ability, and his relation with the community. Certainly then, identical patterns of behavior would not only be impossible but also undesirable.

In Southern California many principals live, by chance or design, as many as twenty miles from their schools. Circumstances determined that we should live in the community served by the school; at one time practically across the street, never farther than a half mile. Having had a daughter go through the schools of the district and having substituted in both the elementary and secondary schools, I have been in close contact with school people and school problems. Our home was always open to our daughter's friends and school associates. This meant that our private life was somewhat regulated. We became closely associated with school affairs in the minds of all our friends. This could be a hazard for some, but, since I had been involved with education most of my life, I was able to avoid most of the pitfalls. I attended many school functions, teas, games, banquets, PTA meetings, and belonged to and held office in several civic organizations. It was difficult to avoid becoming a "joiner." Fortunately, I think, I had no strong urge toward "holding an office" and steadfastly refused to compete with others for honors that others might value. An overpowering drive for recognition on the part of the wife of a public official can be dangerous.

It happened that my husband was a coach before becoming principal and this forced me, in self protection, to become semi-expert in athletic schedules, star athletes, league standings, and a host of other athletic trivia. It was not all waste effort, however, for the sports program, rightly or wrongly, is deeply ingrained in the culture of our times. This background afforded valuable opportunity to meet and know others, and for others to know me. This resulted, I feel sure, in giving me a host of friends and acquaintances with whom I had much in common.

Mrs. Bernhardt L. Bergstrom, El Monte, California.

In attempting to analyze what all this meant in general terms, I think we might conclude the following:

One must be relaxed in his attitude toward others.

One must be willing and able to listen and take criticisms and remarks objectively.

One must interpret what a person really means rather than what he says. That "how" a person says a thing is important and significant.

Following the above rules of concentrating on what a person means and why he says it often keeps you from offering objections likely to result in unnecessary friction and misunderstanding. I learned that "how" I did a thing many times was more important than "what" I did; the way others interpreted my actions was basically most essential. I recognize, more and more, the importance of the dynamics of good human relations.

But, on the other hand, I feel just as strongly that I have rights, interests and needs that are entirely separate from those of my family, school, or husband. Good mental health demands a recognition of this point of view. We are more competent and have better control of situations when our attitudes and emotions are founded on personal satisfactions arising out of desirable fulfillment of needs. Enough of my energy and vitality must be conserved so that I can do many things I personally desire to do. I must reserve the right to regulate my personal life in a manner that brings reasonable satisfactions. This means the right to protect myself against impositions on the part of others. This means the right to a normality of family life. Wives of those in public life must learn this lesson or pay the price of frustration and abnormality.

To fulfill these needs, I often seek interests and activities entirely divorced from the school community. Many of my friends reside in neighboring towns. This policy has meant much in keeping a proper perspective and keeping first things first. However, this need for personal satisfaction should never be so compelling that one cannot adjust easily to whatever situations may arise at school. Being one's self need in no way interfere with those responsibilities accepted as an integral part of a high-school principal's job. Partly because I have never felt the necessity of sacrificing my own personality and individuality to the demands of the school, I can say that being the wife of a high-school principal has proven a very exciting and enjoyable experience, one which I would not exchange for any other that I know.

Summary of the presentation made by MRS. HUGH S. BONAR

I. RELATION TO HER HUSBAND AS PRINCIPAL

THE wife of the principal may play an important role in his success. First of all she should provide a happy, devoted, comforting partner. She should help make his home a place where he can receive psychological support, physical health, comfort, and mental stimulation.

If they have children, she should set an example of what the school principal hopes the parents of the school children will bring to the total education of the children. She should help keep their children healthy, courteous, and honest. She should know good foods, good child training theory and practice, and recognize that, to the extent that she and her husband can develop healthy, courteous, honest and hard working children, she is indirectly giving her husband, as principal, a tremendous assist in his job. This is largely because it removes the handicap of, "Look at Mr. Smith's children! Before telling me about good behavior traits in my children, he'd better start on his own."

The wife of the school administrator can help protect his health both physical and mental by making his home environment one that contributes to his well-being. She must understand the stress and strain under which he works as a school administrator. If the home environment is one that will ease this stress, then, to the extent this is done, she has contributed greatly to his health and indirectly to his success as a principal.

This runs the gamut of food to discussion. She will not only prepare foods that he likes, but will also be constantly alert to offer variety and balance that maintain his health. It includes an interest in his clothes, his hobbies, his recreation. She will help his social needs by sharing in planning a well-rounded social life. She will help in mental stimulation by reading in areas where there can be mutual interest and intellectual growth. She should be thrifty and help her husband keep a good reputation of living within his income.

I. IN RELATION TO HER HUSBAND AS PRINCIPAL

In relation to the profession of teaching, she should show interest in the activities of the profession. If she has been a teacher, this will be easy and she will find it natural. If she has not been a teacher, she can grow in knowledge and understanding of the profession by being a good listener, by reading in some of the professional magazines and books, and by attending some of the professional meetings. She will, of course, affiliate with the auxiliary groups, such as faculty wives' clubs, in order that she may help herself and her husband indirectly by these social re-

lationships and by any cooperation she can give through these activities to the welfare of the profession in which her husband is engaged.

Here she must be constructive. If she, by chance, is the whiner, the complainer, the constant bore, then it were better the various auxiliary groups had never known her. It is understood she may not be a professional person. This is perhaps the normal case. But she can develop an interest, can gain some helpful knowledge, and thereby bring support to her husband.

III. IN RELATION TO THE COMMUNITY

The wife of the principal can make his work easier and more effective if she becomes a reliable, helpful member of the school community. She should share in community activities such as Girl Scouts, PTA groups, women's clubs, and other civic matters and should be interested in cultural activities of the community such as music, art, drama, and literary programs.

Here she must remember to be a constructive member and not a militant antagonizing member. Some school administrators have been handicapped when their wives became too vocal, too aggressive in controversial issues—even controversial school issues. It is not helpful to the husband-principal when the wife becomes the center of comment and argument in the community because of her activities in community affairs. On the other hand, the school administrator's wife is not relegated to the place of "see not, hear not, speak not." She should play a natural, normal role in community affairs and lead in a dignified, positive way whenever her talents and her interests make this a natural and expected contribution to the community.

Summary of the presentation made by MRS. NICHOLAS SCHREIBER

THE topic assignment to this panel for discussion, namely, "What is the Role of the Wife of the Principal in the School Community?", could have as many different answers as there are wives in this room. While all of us have some things in common, each community has its own problems and needs.

Probably the one big thing we have in common, aside from our participation in school activities, is our personal service to the community. Our husbands are such dedicated, capable, and efficient men in their own jobs, that they are all too often called upon to serve on various boards and committees within the community, such as YMCA, Community Chest, Red Cross, and many others too numerous to mention. Here again, being the kind of men they are, they do an outstanding job. Then, when a

Mrs. Nicholas Schreiber, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

similar job comes along requiring the service of some woman, whom do they ask? The wife of the principal. Why? They say, "Ask Mrs. So and So, *he* is so efficient and worked so hard on such and such a committee, I am sure his wife will be just as capable." They ask us and we accept and then proceed to knock ourselves out in an effort to live up to our husband's reputation. We accept because we strongly feel that each woman owes part of her time and effort to community service.

A brief article by Florence and William Shunck, of the Waterford Township Schools, appeared in the *Michigan Education Journal* for the month of November. The title of this article was "The Forgotten Woman in Education" and the opening sentence was, "We refer to the little woman, the wife of a school administrator," and states how important is her part in making a success of his job by her interest in his work and her encouragement day by day. Then it goes on to say that she likes to go with him when he appears before the public because she is so interested in him as a person. This is true, of course, but they should have gone a step farther and said that we go with our husbands whenever we can because we see so little of them at home that we welcome the opportunity to ride along with them and listen to a speech that we have heard him rehearsing a dozen times at home.

Now we get down to what I think is the hardest job the wife of a school principal has—the task of maintaining her own individuality. I never felt so much like the "little woman who wasn't there" as I did the day the telephone rang and, upon answering it, a voice asked "Are you the principal of the high school's wife?" We have been in Ann Arbor for over twenty years and just last week I was introduced to a man who said, "Why, I have known Nick for many years and I have never even seen you." I am sure you all know just what I mean.

I feel very strongly that we as wives should try very hard to keep our personalities as unchanged as possible. We can't control completely the pounds, wrinkles, or gray hair, but we should try to remain, as much as possible, the same girl with whom our husbands fell in love. I am sure that when he asked you to marry him, he wasn't thinking that some day he would be a principal and that you would make the ideal wife of a principal. He asked you because something in your personality attracted him more than any other girl he had met. We should all try to hang on to that quality, so that when our husbands come home from school at the end of a long, long day, they will see, not the wife of a school principal, but that girl they had decided many years ago they could not live without, the gal who tries to make them forget, for an all too brief time, the burden of responsibility of being a school principal.

Summary of the presentation made by MRS. ANDY TOLSON

WHAT is the role of the wife of the principal in the school community? Would you agree with me that this role could be a dual one? I feel it could be "idealistic" and "actual." I will discuss the "actual" role of the wife of a principal in the school community. This actual role I will divide into two parts, taper off with my particular situation, and summarize the role of the wife as far as the need of the principal-husband is concerned.

Our first duty is to insure our husband's success as principal. Principals need their wives in their jobs. Our youth of today will take our places tomorrow. Our tomorrow will be what our teachers and administrators do with our youth today. Therefore, my first duty or role or responsibility, as the wife of a principal, is to be a helpmate to my husband, to do all in my power to insure his success as a principal. I am his social secretary. I keep our "date-books" balanced. I see that he makes all evening appointments. Occasionally I type letters or reports at home, although he has two full-time secretaries. He counts on me for my daily prayers of wisdom, guidance, courage of convictions, safety, and a constant knowledge of the realization that boys and girls are his business—our business. I attempt the role of "patient listener" for explosive happenings, offer counsel when sought, offer suggestions that might improve our school. I accompany him to all forms of school participation.

In the second role, I speak freely of responsibility to others or to the school community. First, I would like to state that I heard the panel last year in Chicago on "The Role of the Wife of the Principal." From some of the expectations of the townspeople, you could feel that both wife and husband had been hired and, of course, just one salary. What should be expected of us wives of principals, as far as others are concerned? We should attend school affairs, be friendly and acquainted as far as possible with faculty—a faculty of 157 is rather a large one with which to cope. I am not expected to entertain them, although we have served refreshments several times after the first teachers' meeting, that they might get acquainted with each other and that I might meet them all. I realize my position is slightly irregular as I will try to point out later. We should accompany our husbands to civic affairs, and conventions where women are invited. We should assume *occasionally* chairmanship of drives. It should be a privilege to attend church regularly and take part in its activities. Although my husband was chosen to Kiwanis in the high-school principal category, it did not in any way cause me, as his wife, to take on added responsibilities.

Mrs. Andy Tolson, Tucson, Arizona.

This report would not be complete could I not refer to my particular locale. I come from the state of Arizona, our baby state, where I was born in 1903 and have lived ever since. My husband is now principal of Tucson High School in a thriving metropolis of 209,184 people. This greater Tucson has shown a gain of 13,923 for the year or over 1,000 per month. So in a few years our sleepy little university town, home of the University of Arizona, has become a large city with school facilities for few and high-school enrollment at 6,000 with one high school. A few short years ago, a three-year high school of 3,800 and then a four-year high school with 6,000, I believe tagged us, in both categories, as the largest in the United States. We are adding one high school at a time and hope eventually to have five high schools with from 1,500-3,000 enrollment. You can plainly see we were so busy taking care of boys and girls that the community honestly felt that this in itself was more than enough. Our school board and superintendent expects the job to be done and puts no pressure on either of us beyond the call of duty in this crisis. Through the years, I have assumed responsibilities—PTA, Girl Scouts, Red Cross, United Campaign, drives of all sorts, been on the Mayor's Committee, as a citizen of my town, not as a principal's wife. My outlet for youth has been eighth graders in Sunday School, boys and girls in our neighborhood. My prayer has been that never would I pass up an opportunity to guide a youth for it might never come again.

Our youth is our tomorrow. Our youth is the job of our husbands, our principals. The principals need their wives in their jobs. I believe the principal and his wife should be so dedicated to youth that they are willing to do all in their power to help them take their places tomorrow. Are you and I and our husbands doing all we can? The future looks rather dark. We have been entrusted with our nation's most precious product—our youth—let us unitedly as principals and wives of principals do our job well. Dedicating our lives, and walking side by side with our husbands, leading the youth of our nation—what greater role could be played in the school community?

Summary of the presentation made by MRS. NEAL M. WHERRY

THE role of the wife of the principal is, I am sure, quite varied. If she is a born social or civic leader, she will be much more active in general community affairs than those of us who are not. If she is prepared to teach, she will very likely be doing just that since the need for teachers is so great. I admire those persons who can apparently teach school or do civic work and run a home at the same time, but I wouldn't want to try to do it. I try to run a home where, instead of going out and earning

Mrs. Neal M. Wherry, Lawrence, Kansas.

money, I stay at home and save it by doing my own house cleaning, laundry, and yard work, even though at times my husband thinks the money disappears pretty fast. I don't try to save time by using various mixes which are nice for people whose time is limited. I make my own soup, cook my own rice, freeze my own corn and fruit which we especially like. I dress chickens when I find them at a good price, for the freezer. I also bake cookies, cakes, and pies for the freezer. These things are all time consuming. If this is your role you haven't much time to do outside work in the community.

Since a principal's wife is seldom interviewed with her husband when he is employed, it does not appear that she is more obligated to do community work than any other citizen. If you are talented in some lines, let the townspeople ask you to do things. Many know from experience how distasteful it is to have a minister's wife come into a community and treat people as if they had no brains or ability and assume that it was her duty to tell the church women what to do and how to do it.

After living with myself these many years I have finally decided that I am most happy when I am doing things for other people. I enjoy taking in food to the office secretaries, or teacher wives, when they are under the weather and can't prepare proper food for themselves.

We have a faculty wives organization that was begun at the suggestion of some of the wives. We have only a chairman at the head and this means very little organization is involved. A good share of our entertainment is giving showers for expectant mothers. This is always fun. At our last Christmas meeting, we exchanged one-dollar gifts which taxes your ingenuity. We also brought Christmas ideas which we found most entertaining and helpful. When one of the teacher wives was ill we took in food once a day for two weeks.

We all like the organization so much because it gives us an evening to become better acquainted and to enjoy each other. The husbands like it (even though they may have to baby sit) because it makes their wives better satisfied and gives them desirable friends quickly in the new community. Incidentally the wives learn about some things that are going on at school.

Our family does very little entertaining because of the lack of nights which are open. Recently we did entertain our entire faculty and the wives, or husbands, at a series of small dinner parties in our home. This took the entire summer with the last dinner held over until in September to include two families that had been out of town and one wife who did not come to town until after school began. We enjoyed this and feel it was very valuable for all of us.

Being at home and not too rushed gives me time to listen to my husband's speeches as he is preparing them. Sometimes I can give him ideas which might be helpful, but mostly I just listen. I can also discuss with him new programs that he wants to put into effect.

I do go to assemblies, athletic games, debates, plays. We usually put in an appearance at school parties, but do not stay throughout. One evening this year we went to a school dinner, then to intramural basketball games, then to a debate meet; all in the same evening.

I have tried not to get too deeply involved in general community affairs. I have helped on community drives, in a Social Service group, in the American Legion Auxiliary. I take an active part in a Book Club and in the women's work of the civic club of which my husband is a member.

I have assumed that the wife of the principal will accept as a first and major responsibility her part in the rearing of the children of the home. They should be brought up so that, when they are in dad's school, the teachers of their classes will forget that they are the principal's children.

Really my first obligation outside of the home is to my church. It is there that you honor God. It is hard to understand such love: that God gave his only begotten Son that we who believe may have eternal life. It is in return for this love that we want to make it possible for others who don't know of God's love to know it and profit from it.

WHAT PROCEDURES AND TECHNIQUES ASSURE GOOD SCHEDULES FOR THE SCHOOL AND THE INDIVIDUAL STUDENT?

CHAIRMAN: *R. Earl Farnsworth*, Principal, Senior High School, Fort Smith, Arkansas

DISCUSSANTS:

Gordon M. Thomas, Principal, Wachusett Regional High School, Holden, Massachusetts

C. E. Wike, Principal, Lexington High School, Lexington, North Carolina

Summary of the presentation made by A. M. ALEXANDER

PERHAPS no one responsibility holds more implications for the effectiveness of the secondary-school program than the planning and preparation of the daily schedule. While a good schedule cannot alone assure a good school, a poor schedule can result in chaos.

In this brief assignment no attempt will be made to discuss or even to enumerate the detailed steps in schedule-making. Rather, it seems important to give emphasis to some of the techniques and procedures which frequently may be overlooked.

A. M. Alexander is Principal of Central Senior High School in Springfield, Missouri.

Scheduling activities might be considered under two major headings—(1) those procedures and devices that are largely mechanical or administratively routine in nature and (2) those that have strong human relations implications. Weakness in either of these areas tends to render ineffective all efforts of the schedule maker in the other area. The two areas are so interrelated that it is unnecessary for the secondary-school administrator to attempt to decide whether he is engaged in one or the other. It is only necessary to keep in mind that effective schedule making requires the use of the best techniques and procedures that are known or can be devised, and that all persons who will be directly concerned with the schedule should be involved to some extent in its development.

Schedule making tends to be a continuous process. Evaluation must go on all of the time, with a place in the administrator's file for depositing ideas as they arise throughout the year. This file will be most helpful when time comes for more intensive scheduling activities.

While the junior high school or the smaller senior high school may defer active planning of the schedule to later in the school year, scheduling procedures in the larger senior high school must be well under way by the beginning of the third quarter. All scheduling activities must point toward maximal satisfaction on the part of students, parents, and teachers. Even with the schedule file that has been kept during the year, the alert administrator will understand the importance of including persons in all of these groups in the early stages of schedule planning. They should be given an opportunity, individually and in relatively small groups, to consider various aspects of the schedule for the next year. It is only logical to expect that not all suggestions will be practicable. On the other hand, it is inconceivable to suspect that no worth-while ideas may be obtained in this manner. Moreover, whether the gain is great or small, such a procedure may be justified as a good human relations practice.

As a culmination of schedule planning, it is hoped that conflicts between courses in terms of student interests and needs will be at a minimum. Thus, the first job is to evaluate course offerings. Experience may have demonstrated that certain courses are not likely to have enough "takers." To leave such courses in the offerings only adds to the confusion of scheduling for those schedules must later be revised. Other courses may need to be added because of a change in state or local requirements or for other reasons. The list of offerings may also contain errors from a previous printing. All of these corrections should be made before the "selection of studies" forms are placed in the hands of students and parents.

Under the guidance of teachers and counselors and with the approval of parents, students should then be given opportunity to select specific courses for the ensuing year and tentative courses for the remaining years

to graduation. From a tabulation of these choices, the administration can determine the number of sections and thus the number of teachers needed for each subject area and for each course.

Many students may then be grouped, or "blocked," by course-patterns. Conflict sheets should be prepared by these patterns, or blocks, within each grade level. Blocks may then be "sectioned" into class groups and distributed systematically to the different periods in the daily schedule. Courses outside the blocks may be distributed in the schedule with a minimum of conflicts as indicated by the conflict sheets, thus allowing the great majority of students to be scheduled into courses of their choices.

When the master schedule has been prepared from this information, it should either be posted or mimeographed to permit a final evaluation by departmental chairmen and teachers. Teachers should be encouraged to offer suggestions, but should understand that their suggestions must be considered in light of many factors. There will need to be compromises, and teachers must be enabled to see the whole scheduling picture.

Since the welfare of everyone in the classroom depends so much upon the teacher, he is an important person. Consideration should be given in the schedule to the conservation of his time and to his physical and mental health. Not only should an attempt be made to place teachers in areas and courses of greatest interest and strongest preparation, but also the number of subject areas and different courses should be held to a desirable minimum. Changes between classrooms should be prevented, if possible, but, when a change to another room is necessary, the distance between rooms should not require too much of the teacher's time or energy.

Where teachers have one or more conference periods during the day, it is helpful if those with common problems such as departmental chairmen, members of special committees, *etc.* can be scheduled for a conference period at the same hour, thus allowing for periodic small group meetings during conference periods.

The basic philosophy of the school will determine the extent to which ability grouping will be used. Students may be sectioned in terms of ability, or, where two or more classes of a course meet at the same period, instruction can be facilitated in many instances by shifting students between those classes to reduce the spread in achievement or ability. It may be wise to make other shifts between these classes, too, to eliminate cliques or to place students with teachers who understand them best or can help them most. It may be desirable to continue this process for a time after the schedule goes into effect.

In schools where there must be more than one lunch period, classes should be dismissed in such manner as to prevent unnecessary confusion near classes still in session. Students may be dismissed by sections, by floor, or by buildings, as the need requires, and vertical rather than horizontal traffic in the buildings should be encouraged.

Briefly, it is important that the administrator realize that his is an important job, and that he is not likely to have all the answers. Since the literature is replete with a discussion of techniques and procedures that have proved helpful in many schools, the secondary-school administrator has no good reason for not knowing them. It is worth re-emphasizing, too, that schedule-making should begin early and should involve a lot of people. Such attention both to the mechanics and to the human relations angle of the job tends to underwrite the success of the schedule for the school and the individual student.

Summary of the presentation made by ROBERT D. LELAND

THE building of better schedules for the school and the individual is a constant challenge to all secondary-school administrators. There are few other tasks a principal and his staff can do to improve more effectively the educational program of the school. The junior high school is in a highly favorable position to meet the needs of all kinds and types of early adolescents.

It is our belief that the combination of limited grouping of sections, grouping within classes, flexible scheduling, and faculty interest in the individual all contribute to better programs for more students. These basic premises are offered with the assumption that a principal and his staff do adequate long-range planning, study and evaluate the community as well as individual needs and demands, and consider the plant and equipment.

Limited Grouping of Sections

There are many ways of grouping students in use today, but we feel limited grouping provides the desirable classroom climate and allows for flexible scheduling to function. Regardless of the ability distribution of the student body, the pattern below should be possible in some form. The incoming sixth-grade pupils are grouped on the basis of IQ indexes and reading achievement. The extremely low students are put into groups of 20 to 25 to give them a special classroom situation within the framework of the regular curriculum, but only up to limits of their abilities. The very high students are grouped together and are then programmed into a temporarily accelerated program through the seventh and eighth grades. All remaining students are grouped roughly into the upper half and the lower half of the class. This means the limits of these groups have been reduced, but any one of the groups within either half of the class is a fairly representative *average* group. This pattern makes it possible to create a few remedial as well as accelerated classes in mathe-

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matics, reading, and language arts. At the same time, it meets the needs of the large majority of students without producing problems of strict heterogonous grouping.

Flexible Scheduling

The aim of this type of scheduling is to make as much allowance for individual differences as possible. Control over the range of experiences, particularly in the seventh or eighth grades, is necessary and is effectively handled by requiring students to have some experience in a variety of fields. As soon as students demonstrate achievement in the required subjects, they may begin to substitute either electives in other fields or more intensified classes in the same areas. Such a program amounts to temporary acceleration. Thus the student who is doing outstanding work in mathematics is programmed into a high mathematics section that is doing the seventh- and eighth-grade course in about a year and a half and then going into an elective that offers an introduction in algebra, geometry, and business mathematics.

As long as the fundamental skills are being developed in social living and mathematics classes, the capable student or the student with a particular interest may substitute an elective for one of the other required classes.

Good guidance practices and an interested faculty can use grouping and flexible scheduling in the junior high school to the best advantage of most of the students of a school.

WHAT IS THE MOST EFFECTIVE WAY OF ARRANGING THE LENGTH AND USE OF THE CLASS PERIOD?

CHAIRMAN: *Loman F. Hutchings*, Principal, Union High School, Roosevelt, Utah

DISCUSSANTS:

J. Harley Waldron, Principal, Woodrow Wilson High School, Xenia, Ohio

S. P. Vick, Principal, Dumas High School, Dumas, Texas

Summary of the presentation made by ALBERT E. FERRARA

SINCE having been bestowed the honor to report on this problem, my first impression was to survey fellow administrators as to their particular method of arranging the length of class periods. Amazingly, results of the survey included answers such as: school program in adjoining buildings,

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transportation, core programs, Federal aid programs, lunch programs, supervised study program denoted by bell, past precedent, etc.

As to the use of the class period, it is amazing the grasp the recitation type program still has on schools. There appeared a reluctance to mention supervised study within the class period. Projects were also mentioned, in conjunction with recitation. In systems where the core or partial core program existed, there appeared to be more activity within the classroom period.

Through conferences, research, and personal experiences, I want to relate what appears to be the most effective means of attaining our ultimate goal, a more effective period for instruction. The arrangement of the length and use of the classroom, should, by all means, be definitely patterned from a written basic philosophy developed, accepted, and understood by the administration, the teachers, the students, and the community. This philosophy should be in harmony with general aims of secondary education and with the imperative needs of serving the main intent and purpose of schools, the child.

The length of a class period is never set for convenience. We are aware that there is a tendency toward longer class periods in secondary education. Core or partial core program advocates tend to recommend either a whole session or a full day. In setting up a written formula for the length of the class period for the conventional schedule, our approach must consider the planned activity called for by a complete programming of *unit teaching*. The method of *unit teaching* appears to be an excellent way to make school work interesting to pupils and leads them toward higher goals.

It provides for individual differences, wide pupil participation, problem-solving procedures, and pupil evaluation of the results. It affords opportunities for correlating the various subject areas and for centering the learning of knowledge around the solution of practical problems of interest to boys and girls. When properly planned and organized, provision is made for (1) orientation—an approach to the problem, (2) a planning period for formulating problems and suggesting possible means of solution, (3) working period during which the plans formulated are executed, (4) culminating activities, and (5) evaluation of outcome. The role played by the teacher in this program is that she becomes the leader of the group. She will steer and guide the work activities so that time will be utilized to the best possible advantage.

With diversified activities within the group, some changes in facilities may be necessary. Teacher orientation on this type of program may be advisable. Assignments may or may not be in the classroom. We are giving the classroom a more social environment in solving the planned units. Some classes may have more activity than others. Teachers philosophies and subjects taught will have some bearing on procedure.

Direct, purposeful experiences, contrived experience, dramatic participation, demonstration, field trips are the most effective methods of learning, according to Edgar Dale's Cone of Experience. Verbalism (assignment, recitation, question, answer) is the least effective. This does not necessarily mean that recitation is *passée*. There is a definite place for it in a good teaching program, but the constant routine of assignments, recitation, question, and answer method does tend to cause students to shift from side to side. Variation to the teaching unit program or any program may be needed to become more effective. Necessary procedure changes are made if needed by the directing teacher. A good program must be flexible to be effective.

To accomplish the aims of this program a class period of possibly an hour in length is recommended. When the class period is utilized with effervescent enthusiasm, activity is such that all are working toward a common goal, and the planned outcomes are being met, then we should provide more time in our time schedule.

Summary of the presentation made by I. OWEN FOSTER

1. No standard length of class period or number of periods per week or in a course existed until the establishment of the Carnegie unit.

2. Classes in secondary-school subjects continued to be offered in short periods in the upper grades of the elementary schools and unrecognized high schools until pressure from accrediting agencies, state universities, and state departments of education forced conformity for accreditation and transfer purposes. Although largely effected by 1910, the process was not completed until after 1930.

3. The pattern established was largely an eight-period day of 40 or 45 minutes each.

4. Each pupil took four subjects as a normal load. Even then some form of varied experience characterized a shorter opening period. Opening exercises included such activities as marching, rhythmic, group singing, appreciation of group or individual work, talks by principal, faculty and others, the embryo of physical education, music education, guidance, extracurricular activities, *etc.*

5. The activities within a class during the eight periods depended much upon the nature of the subject, but the question-answer and lecture activities dominated, with assignments being limited largely to textbooks and given at the end of the period,—frequently after the bell had rung. Discussion and drills were focused on one goal: the ability of the pupil to answer questions largely of *fact*.

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6. Work in science, homemaking, general agriculture, industrial arts, *etc.* was fitted into the curriculum by setting aside double periods twice a week to meet the requirements of the Carnegie unit.

7. The Smith-Hughes Act provided for a kind of training that did not readily fit into the 8-period-of-40-minutes-each day. More time was allocated in various states for the newer type of work which required actual participation of pupils in vocational activities.

8. Philosophy began to point out and research began to show that various other objectives besides memory of facts were most desirable as outcomes of education.

9. Teachers of other subjects also saw the possibility of adaptation of newer methods if periods could be lengthened to make such work possible. Interviews, field trips, research activities at the court house, city hall, newspaper office, *etc.* could not be done in 40 minutes. Longer time spent in such activities meant absence of pupils from other classes and resultant objections by teachers, principal, and laymen.

10. For the past quarter of a century we have experimented with the length of period and the number of days per week of class meetings. Persons committed to the drill or rote-memory type of activities are convinced that the 40 or 45 minute period is "it." Persons committed to the principle that much of the most desirable learning comes from experiencing want more time for pupil activity.

11. These two philosophies of education present several practical problems to the high-school principal. One of these is "How long should class periods be?" Another is "How should the class periods be used?"

12. H. G. Hotz reported in 1936 that thirty-eight per cent of the schools accredited by the North Central Association had class periods of 55 minutes or longer. B. Lamar Johnson reported in Monograph No. 19 of the National Survey of Secondary Education in 1932 that 99 of 174 high schools selected for study and reporting, or slightly over forty-eight per cent, were using periods of 50 minutes or longer. By 1950 by rule of the Indiana State Board of Education the length of the class period for first-class commissioned high schools was "55 minutes exclusive of all time used in changing classes or teachers." By 1956 the same state had set the minimum length of the class period at 50 minutes in all classified high schools. Only the Indianapolis high schools vary from the requirement with classes ranging from 40 minutes to 80 minutes depending upon the subject, especially in non-vocational areas. The director of instruction in a near-by state reports that all junior high schools and nearly all senior high schools in his state have gone to the longer period whereas the director of instruction of still another state is convinced that the longer period should be adopted by every high school.

13. Despite the increased cost involved in the longer period in large high schools, the writer concurs with the trend. Activities requiring less

time certainly can be done in a longer period whereas those requiring a longer period cannot be telescoped into the shorter period without loss in learning results. As the principal of the Williamsport (Pa.) High School pointed out, "Working under the direction of teachers (even though the teachers do not supervise study in the accepted use of the term) is superior to having pupils work in study halls under the direction of teachers not at all familiar with the lessons the pupils are studying." And, I might add "or trying to work at home under no direction or misdirection."

14. In fact, the double period or double lengthened period has been gaining favor. With it, classes meet four days a week leaving a floating period for another class or for other activities. Schools using this plan report favorably concerning it.

15. If the longer period is accepted as constituting a more desirable learning time situation, the question arises as to what is the proper use to be made of the teaching and pupil activities during this longer period. For factual learning *alone* and for drill purposes *per se* the longer period is a waste of time. For a variety of activities such as pupil-teacher planning, goal setting, determining desirable outcomes, selecting of techniques, group study, reporting of results, evaluation of the unit, selection of materials for drill, drill exercises, use of various tools, *etc.*, the shorter period is not well adapted. The longer period has many advantages for these purposes.

16. Perhaps most teachers have been schooled under the older philosophy of education. Even exposure to more modern methods in our teacher-education institutions has not adequately prepared them to function effectively with the expanded philosophy of education in longer class periods. They must be taught *how*. Principals can advise concerning graduate courses, can conduct teacher seminars, organize extension classes in their own schools for this purpose, prepare reading lists and engage in numerous other activities to teach the staff how to use the longer period for classes.

WHAT ARE RECENT TRENDS IN CURRICULUM ORGANIZATION?

CHAIRMAN: *William H. Warner*, Director of Secondary Education, State Department of Education, Trenton, New Jersey

DISCUSSANTS:

Mrs. Mary M. Engberg, Vice Principal, Airport Junior High School, Los Angeles, California

Lee F. Kinney, Principal, East Lansing High School, East Lansing, Michigan

Summary of the presentation made by M. S. McDONALD

NO INDIVIDUAL engaged in educating the youth of America today has to be reminded that the eyes of the general public have been focused upon the public schools in searching scrutiny within the past several months. As the number of pupils in school has rapidly multiplied and the cost of education has mushroomed, the attention of the man on the street has turned questioningly toward the improvement in the product he is receiving for his dollar. This product—the youth presently enrolled in the public school—has agitated this tendency to raise questions as countless stories have repeatedly appeared in the current newspapers and periodicals suggesting among other things: (1) his delinquency or lack of moral and ethical standards; (2) his inadequacy of preparation to cope with the tool subjects, especially reading, spelling, mathematics, and scientific data; (3) his lack of understanding of family financial and economic problems; and (4) his inability to adapt readily to an adult world and assume full responsibility for his actions. These stories have in many sections of the country led to charges and countercharges, suggesting that the public schools are full of fads and frills, that they are failing to teach the 3-R's, that they are not making progress in keeping with the industrial and scientific advancement, that they are becoming God-less institutions, that they are not meeting the needs of the youth of today, etc.

Questions and charges raised by wide-spread stories and publicity regarding the problems of the public school students and graduates, augmented by a continual professional desire among school administrators and teachers to improve educational methods, have caused school personnel to take a critical look at the needs of the pupils of their immediate locality and to attempt to measure to as great a degree as possible the success of the local school system in meeting these needs. The reported results of questionnaires and studies made by the Southern

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States Work Conference and others reveal that in almost all systems there have been, to varying degrees, efforts made to analyze the curriculum offerings in local systems. A survey of existing data on curriculum studies indicates that there is a decided trend in our nation today to analyze critically the secondary curriculum and to subject it to such tests as can be devised to determine the changes needed in meeting the needs of today's youth.

As school systems have responded to a questioning public by looking at the basic curricular structure upon which the schools have operated, there have evolved some suggested changes which are being put into practice to the extent that they might be identified as current trends in curricular organization and practice. Apparently one of the most wide-spread results of the searching analysis of school problems was the realization that the development of the curriculum of the school system was a responsibility of all, including administrators, teachers, lay people, and students. Throughout almost all recent reports of studies on curriculum development are found references to locally structured groups which include school, lay, and student groups.

An analysis of the current curriculum patterns developed by school-lay-student study groups does not reveal many radical changes from prior curricular patterns. However, there has been, to a considerable extent, departure from traditional college preparatory patterns in recent years by numerous schools in America. The comprehensive high school designed to meet the needs, as nearly as possible, of all students is replacing the traditional college preparatory school and is increasingly considered to be providing for the needs of youth. The college preparatory or special interests curriculum organization is being replaced by broader general education programs in which all students, including exceptional children, can find opportunities for success and a sense of accomplishment.

Co-curricular activities have been accepted as a vital part and incorporated into the curriculum organization. Within the structure of the curriculum in the comprehensive high school there seem to be certain evident trends. Numerous school systems are turning to block of time scheduling in the ninth, tenth, and eleventh grades in order to introduce core studies, common learnings, or integrated studies. This organization, they believe, gives much greater opportunity for adequate guidance activities, understanding of environment, democratic participation, social adjustment, and citizenship training. Also, within many of these core or integrated groups, there is a trend toward ability groupings, either by class sections or by small groups within the class similar to the primary teacher's reading groups. Some of the reports on curriculum organization indicate ability groupings by sections and some by groups within the classroom in subjects such as chemistry, algebra, and mathematics, and indicate successful participation by almost all students. There

is also a wide-spread trend toward including, among others, instruction in family living, safety education, conservation, family economics and finance, vocational instruction, remedial reading and corrective activities as well as the traditional course in the curriculum, organized around a core of common learnings or integrated subjects.

In conclusion, it might be said that there is a wide-spread interest in improving curriculum organization in the secondary schools. While most schools have retained their basic academic subjects, there has been an easing of iron-clad requirements, and curriculum adjustments are being made to provide for exceptional, non-college, preparatory, and slow learning youth. Also, the core or common learnings block of time is gaining considerable support in early high-school years as a logical basis upon which to build a program to meet the needs of all high-school youth.

Summary of the presentation made by STEPHEN ROMINE

A CAREFUL study of the high-school curriculum discloses a number of trends of varying strength and significance. Among these are some that are very fundamental to the continued improvement of secondary education. Two of these are basic to all others, and only as they become increasingly prevalent may we expect curriculum revision to be more vital and more wide-spread.

The growing interest of school administrators, especially high-school principals, in the improvement of curriculum and instruction is a most wholesome trend. Without the leadership and prestige which only the principal can give to this matter in his building, nothing of great consequence is likely to be accomplished. For it is on the level of the individual school and in the individual classrooms that curriculum revision is translated into better teaching and better learning.

The second trend which facilitates others is that of the increasing use of educational research and experimentation. Advances in agriculture, business, industry, medicine, technology, and other areas of endeavor have come about largely through research. At long last we seem to be realizing that this is a sound and most promising means to the improvement of curriculum and instruction.

These enabling trends, coupled with mounting public interest in education, are gradually expanding the scope of curriculum revision and increasing the number of schools actively engaged in this work. Many of the things which are being tried may be discussed briefly in terms of three categories of curriculum trends.

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First, there is a progressively more positive concern for individual differences and especially for the more able and superior students. Many school systems, alone and in cooperation with collegiate institutions, are using both enrichment and acceleration to this end. Many other provisions are made by secondary schools in the effort to challenge a greater percentage of youth. In Colorado this year a state-wide program for the more able student has aimed at stimulating schools to undertake those things which each feels capable of doing to upgrade the quality of secondary education. Attention to the more able youth is not only sound educationally; it is also imperative in view of the national manpower picture.

Second, there is a growing tendency to break the lockstep of the traditional school. This is evident in several ways. Organizational plans increasingly include courses developed on the basis of a problems approach. The core curriculum continues to find favor, particularly on the junior high-school level. By careful planning and the placing of more responsibility for learning on students' shoulders, some schools have been able to accomplish in fewer periods per week more than previously attained in a greater number of periods. Heavier student loads, the elimination or reduction of study halls, and higher graduation requirements are also part of this trend. It is quite possible that we may eventually modify the Carnegie unit basis of credit sufficiently that greater attention may be placed on qualitative attainment. This will make for a more useful and efficient curriculum.

The *third* trend, one within which framework the other two have made their appearance, is that of a broadening concept of the curriculum. Credit is given for more things in the curriculum today than in the past, and many of the once so-called extras have found a legitimate place in the regular program. Curriculum revision on a K-12 basis is on the increase, and growing cooperation between high schools and colleges is helping to promote better articulation and to improve the freshman year of college. A greater range of teaching and learning resources constitutes another aspect of this trend. High-school teachers are more often planning their work together these days, so that correlation across departmental lines serves to enrich the several fields involved. Laymen are more frequently used in curriculum planning now than in the past—some systems having rather elaborate schemes for their utilization. Camping and work experience are serving to extend the curriculum beyond the school and the traditional concept of an educational program.

Although these trends are well established and significant, they may suffer a serious set-back as mounting enrollments and the worsening teacher shortage require more and more time, energy, and finance. It behooves secondary-school principals, therefore, to keep their shoulders to the wheel so that the forward movement of the curriculum may continue.

WHAT ARE THE ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF TEACHER MERIT-RATING PLANS?

CHAIRMAN: *Wendell Wilson*, Principal, Greeley High School, Greeley, Colorado

DISCUSSANTS:

M. Wayne Vonarx, Principal, North Alleghany Junior-Senior High School, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

Robert F. La Vanture, Principal, Morristown High School, Morristown, New Jersey

Summary of the presentation made by E. DALE KENNEDY

PROBABLY there would be little furor among educators about merit-rating of teachers if salary was not involved. Official or unofficial rating of teachers goes on all the time. Sometimes it is reflected in salary policies, usually as increases. At other times, promotions, reassignments, special duties, committee work, and similar recognition of superior teaching competency, not necessarily including salary readjustments, are the result of merit-rating of some type.

The ostrich-in-the-sand attitude of the teacher who blithely states, "I don't know any incompetent teachers," hardly reflects the same perception which parents and pupils exhibit. There are less able teachers, administrators, supervisors, and all the other classifications; and there are very competent persons, too. We know this is true.

John A. Hannah, president of Michigan State University, speaking before the Michigan Schoolmasters Club, recently said, "Equal pay for unequal performance is a vicious perversion of the concept of equality. This is not equality—it is enforced regimentation at best."

"Despite the skeptics," proponents say, "such a plan is possible if the people of the community will support it; if the teachers have confidence in the integrity of the administration and the school board; if the procedure is established so that the teachers themselves have an opportunity to participate in administering such a merit system; and if such a plan is not in use to coerce or to discriminate against individuals holding an opinion somewhat contrary to those held by the administration."

Speaking from a very different point of view, the NEA Department of Classroom Teachers, in a recent conference in Washington, D. C., defined merit-rating as follows: "Merit rating, as presently practiced, is primarily a subjective, qualitative judgment of a teacher's work with or without the knowledge of the teacher, for the purpose of determining salary." The

E. Dale Kennedy is Executive Secretary of the Michigan Secondary-School Association in Lansing, Michigan.

conference went on record as opposed to merit-rating for these purposes. They developed twenty reasons for their opposition.

The disadvantages listed were: (1) no accurate means of measuring quality of teaching; (2) great variation in philosophies of quality of teaching; (3) tends to lower morale; (4) tends to produce conformity to pre-conceived ideas of some person or group which tends to suppress initiative; (5) discourages experimentation; (6) retards democratic procedures in problem solving; (7) pupil differences make evaluation of quality of instruction difficult and unfair; (8) controls educational costs and does not promote better teaching; (9) no best methods of teaching; (10) reduces cooperation between teacher-teacher and teacher-administrator; (11) teacher attitudes are conditioned which will be detrimental to pupils; (12) administration becomes inspector, not professional leader of instruction; (13) requires large adequately educated staff for supervision; (14) requires small schools for frequent supervision; (15) will increase costs to have just administrative system; (16) subjective factors; (17) lack of administrators with time, training, and professional maturity necessary to make sound judgments; (18) detrimental effect on administration as it substitutes force of rating for courageous administration; (19) gives false impressions of salaries actually paid teachers; (20) inhibits cooperative discussion between teacher groups and boards of education regarding salary matters.

Advantages are difficult to develop because schools which have some form of merit-rating often define their procedure as something other than merit-rating. Parallel advantages for a plan which looks like merit in some respects, but is called something else, is not particularly valid. However, some advantages may be listed as gathered from the literature in the field: (1) eliminates snap judgments; (2) emphasizes good personnel policy; (3) increases public support of schools; (4) encourages self-evaluation; (5) discourages incompetency; (6) raises professional, social, status; (7) follows old American precept; (8) tenure increases importance of evaluation; (9) rating for pay common in other professions.

The problem resolves itself into the need for careful and continued study on a cooperative basis by all who are involved. This includes the teacher, administrator, board of education member, pupils, and parents.

Flat statements that it can't be done will not be sufficient to answer the proponents of some types of merit-rating. Americans have usually tackled the impossible and in most instances realized a solution. The attitude has usually been, "The difficult we do today, the impossible may take a little longer."

Summary of the presentation made by DON A. ORTON

RATHER than attempt either an objective recapitulation of arguments favoring or disfavoring merit-rating or an impassioned defense of or attack upon merit-rating, I have chosen to report a state-wide study currently underway on this very question. More accurately, therefore, the title might read "Progress of an Empirical Study to Determine the Advantages and Disadvantages of Merit-Rating for Teachers." Perhaps too often the question of whether or not to rate educators' professional performance for purposes of salary differentials has been settled by emotional and verbal determinants rather than by the results of empirical studies conducted in the field.

BACKGROUND TO THE UTAH STUDY

Three years ago (March 1954), at the behest of the Utah Legislative Council, a nine-man Committee (five lay members and four educators) commenced a study "to determine the practicability of formulating and, if practicable, to formulate a plan, or plans, of merit-rating and incentive pay schedules for school personnel in Utah." Six months later, after having listened to its consultants, after having reviewed the literature, engaged in extensive correspondence, conducted hearings, participated in workshops, distributed and analyzed a questionnaire which had broad distribution, and weighed in Committee the *pros* and *cons* of what it had learned the Utah School Merit Study Committee reported to the Legislative Council that the feasibility of merit-rating for school personnel could not be determined by research and experience in other states and school districts. It could be determined for Utah school districts only by actual results of field tests by those districts which were prepared to engage in such a study.

The Committee concluded that *in principle* "there is an undeniable fairness in . . . compensating educators on the basis of the quality of performance." It cannot be argued, the Committee believes, that poor teaching is as valuable as good teaching. It is likewise spurious to assume that the quantitative constants of "number of years of preparation" plus "number of years of experience" (basic factors in most salary schedules) consistently yield the same qualitative teaching result. In March 1957 as in September 1954, the Committee cannot yet say that what is apparently good in principle is also good in practice. It is still very much in process of finding out.

In its Preliminary Report, it set up a dozen "Guides for Filed Tests" which reflected the Committee's basic commitments. The Committee re-

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ported, for example, that the "practicability" of merit-rating must be determined by such considerations as the educators' actually being able to describe and assemble acceptable evidence relating to teaching expertness; by a resulting improvement in the district of the quality of instruction; and by a high morale among participating teachers and administrators. It said that the field studies and merit-rating programs could not be imposed upon teachers and school districts. Each district must develop and adopt its own merit-rating programs and evaluate its own results. Criteria of what constitutes expertness in teaching and the evidence which reflects such expertness must be determined by parties directly affected by and responsible for merit-rating. These criteria, the Committee said, should be broadly based and reflective of all the important facets of teaching. It is unrealistic, the Committee reported, to attempt to implement fine gradations of competency. Three, perhaps, will prove to be most practicable.

Between March and June 1955, after extensive groundlaying by the Committee and the school districts potentially interested in conducting pilot studies, the Committee had entered into study agreements with three of Utah's forty school districts: Sevier School District, a small rural consolidated county district; Provo School District; and Jordan, a large rural consolidated district in Salt Lake County. More than 800 teachers and administrators are presently involved in these three studies. Since June 1955 the investigation has become state-local in nature, with the State Committee providing its secretary for consultative and communication functions and securing from the State Legislature augmented budgets for the districts to conduct the field trials. In turn, each of the three districts has maintained its own hegemony and set up its own design and study procedures, but has maintained with the State Committee an informal, but close and frequent, communication relationship.

In its Tentative Report the Committee projected two basic phases to the field trials in the pilot districts: (1) Identification of acceptable criteria of teaching expertness; (2) "Dry runs" to test the practicability of basing salary differences upon the observable, qualitative differences in teaching performance.

All three districts at present are somewhere in Phase I. All three are building definitions of competence based upon observable, behavioral dimensions of teaching. One district is beyond the first drafting stage and is now testing its tentative definition in its school and communities. In process it will encounter and attempt to solve the problems attending the appraisal of performance. By the end of the current school year, all three districts anticipate having developed criteria of teaching excellence and having had experience in application of their respective definitions.

During 1957-58 the districts will intensively work upon the evaluation of teaching performance with its many attendant considerations. Not

until 1958-59 is it anticipated that the pilot districts will be ready to look directly at the question of how salary programs may be affected by merit differences.

WHAT THE COMMITTEE SEEMINGLY HAS LEARNED

Tentativeness must characterize conclusions and generalizations drawn at this stage of the Study. It appears however, that:

1. The Committee's approach has succeeded insofar as it has secured the willing and continuing participation of three districts to study the merit question. In 1952, thirty-two per cent of Utah's teachers opposed the single salary schedule. In 1956, forty-two per cent opposed it. It is impossible to say how much, if any, of this shift in attitude can be attributed to the cautious, empirical approach the Committee has used. During the past several months, however, three additional groups of teachers have indicated an interest in joining the Study. Educators in the three participating districts are more enthusiastic about the Study now than they were when they joined.

2. Efforts to define good teaching operationally and to evaluate it, apart from considerations of emolument, have proved stimulating and rewarding to participating districts. This phase of the study alone may more than justify all budgetary and time investments. For Utah schools, at least, these efforts represent a major break-through in educators' developing definitions of and criteria for determining excellence in teaching.

3. The formidable strength and variety of opposing forces which must be overcome in such a study must not be underestimated: serious, prior failures in merit-rating; complexity of the task (this problem presents social and technical challenges of the first magnitude); mistrust of motives; belief that the problem already has been conclusively and finally answered in the negative; emotionalism and dedicated opposition are some. Effective counter-forces probably include the genuinely empirical nature of the study; cohesion and unity within the Merit Study Committee despite the variety of private beliefs regarding merit-rating held by its members; able State and local staffs; the autonomy of participating districts; the willingness and patience of the members of the Committee in explaining the proposed Study to teacher groups (and, one might add, ability to absorb hostility); and the statesmanlike position of the Utah Education Association, which while not endorsing merit-rating, at a critical point publicly commended the State Committees' study approach.

4. Among the Committees' vicarious learnings and convictions can be cited the twelve "guide lines" earlier referred to. In addition, there is probably agreement among the membership of the State Committee that the potential success of merit-rating presupposes a good basic salary program, well-prepared administrators and staff who are particularly qualified to provide leadership in evaluating and improving instructional performance, and a reasonably small teacher-supervisor ratio. At no time has the Committee regarded merit-rating as a device to hold down instructional budgets. On the contrary, if merit-rating proves practicable, it will result in improved instruction and, therefore, increased instructional outlays.

THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS CAN REHABILITATE THE HANDICAPPED. HOW AND WHY?

CHAIRMAN: *Francis A. Gregory*, Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Industrial and Adult Education, Public Schools, Washington, D. C.

INTRODUCTION: *S. Harry Baker, Jr.*, Director of Special Education in Secondary Schools, Public Schools, Washington, D. C.

CONSULTANTS:

Tom G. Rathbone, Director, D. C. Department of Vocational Rehabilitation, Washington, D. C.

Arthur Carl Murr, Vocational Rehabilitation Officer, U. S. Civil Service Commission, Washington, D. C.

Mrs. Edith Verant, Supervisor of Training and Handicapped Placement, U. S. Employment Service for the District of Columbia, Washington, D. C.

E. Susan Hendricks, Employment Specialist, D. C. Department of Vocational Rehabilitation, Washington, D. C.

Harold Clark, Director of Industrial and Adult Education, Public Schools, Washington, D. C.

Summary of the presentation made by WILLIAM J. SMITH

The Community's Responsibility for the Rehabilitation of the Handicapped

SINCE the communities in our social structure have not yet shown general acceptance of any solution to the long standing problem of how to help handicapped persons among us, one may without presumption suggest that new instruments and new approaches are needed. This problem of helping the handicapped involves a serious present lack of planning, coordination, and leadership to meet a condition which may begin at birth and last throughout life. The communities have responsibility for early recognition, long-range planning, and provision of necessary services.

In the light of this recognition, the high-school principal comes into focus as the person upon whom responsibility falls for bringing into play the seeing eye, the sympathetic heart, and the dollar-conscious business sense that indicates an all-out search for some far better solution than this world has yet seen to the problems of how the handicapped person may earn a living for himself. He must either learn skills with which to earn food, shelter, and clothing or those things must be given him as gifts, through taxes or—he might steal to obtain them. Families traditionally have been expected to plan for individual members.

William J. Smith is Chairman of the Advisory Committee of the District of Columbia Department of Vocational Rehabilitation; and Vice Chairman of the Commissioners' Advisory Council, Washington, D. C.

The public is increasingly becoming less willing to carry the rising taxation cost. Society never has looked kindly upon those who resort to being maintained without work. The only sound solution that can ever solve this sorely pressing social conflict is for the community to provide, from childhood to old age, the practical training and job placement services that will minimize for the handicapped their disabilities and permit them to make use of the skills that each and everyone of them do possess for being self-sustaining members of the community.

Can that be done? It certainly can. A scattering of pilot projects (under Public Law 565) have already proved beyond doubt that it is not only possible, but also very good business for all concerned.

Among the techniques needed are early recognition that the child, youth, or adult, who, because of some defect, injury, or illness, will have more difficulty than most individuals in finding his way through life. Medical treatment, vocational training, professional counseling, aptitude testing, and job placement have enabled many a handicapped person to get and hold the kind of job that will enable him to become a useful, productive member of the community.

Who could be more instrumental in this work for furthering such a program than the high-school principal? He is a powerful community leader. He has the wide range of community liaison. It is he who is in touch with the PTA, the church, the civic and fraternal organizations. He is the person to whom the parents of a handicapped child turn, or to whom they would turn were he to show recognition of the need for solution of the individual problems of the child or youth so restricted.

It is the principal who is in the key position to encourage the student who must rise above a vocational handicap. The principal and teachers are in the most strategic position to observe the problem early. The school has the young person for the greatest number of hours he is awake and thus is able to provide the opportunity to establish sound learning and work habits. However, the principal needs the backing of the community in establishing those programs that will be ultimately beneficial to the handicapped.

Let's look at what the community is and what it should do to make itself a better place for its handicapped members. It is a community of human beings and, therefore, has a responsibility for each of its members. That is what makes the human world different from the animal world. It must include the process of rehabilitation for the vocationally handicapped which, in turn, makes it a good community for everyone, the disabled as well as the able bodied.

Now comes the problem to be considered of just how much such a program will cost. What will it cost? Will it be worth the estimated cost in dollars and cents? Yes—whatever it costs, it will be worth many times more than the investment, even allowing for mistakes made in the pioneer efforts to provide a framework within which the handicapped

youth and adult can avoid both blockades and stumbling blocks and ultimately discover their true talents. The chief concern would be the youth or adult himself—his unique, individual potentials and practical development. Teachers should be trained to recognize the broad implications of handicaps, what they mean in the life of the pupil both now and in the future. Furthermore, the whole community should work toward an acceptable solution.

Most communities do not even know at present what their own towns have in the way of facilities providing necessary services to handicapped persons, either adults or children. What agencies, and how many, in your community provide services for any types of disability? What coordination, if any, exists among such agencies? What is the cost of operating each such agency? What actual help is being provided? Much of present efforts are largely blocked because the rehabilitation process is often not coordinated and timed to the needs of the individual.

What is needed is an over-all, planned, and continuously guided program beginning in childhood, or at the time any later disability first appears, and carried on continuously as long as the individual needs services to function as a productive member of the community.

It can be done—intensive experimentation with small, widely scattered groups with varying handicaps has proved that a guided program can function effectively, given sufficient facilities, funds, and appropriate staff. According to the annual report for 1955 of the U. S. Department of Health, it is estimated that rehabilitees will pay ten dollars in Federal income taxes for every Federal dollar invested in their rehabilitation. Where can we find such investment opportunities? To be more specific, in the District of Columbia Department of Vocational Rehabilitation, persons rehabilitated in 1955 are expected to return in taxes the total cost of their rehabilitation in seventeen months and an estimated minimum of \$2,393,762 in taxes during their remaining work years.

The handicapped person is here and he has the God-given right to live. To do so he has needs from birth to death—food, shelter, and clothing. He has three ways—the same three ways that you have—to meet them. He may earn them, they may be given him, or he might steal to obtain them.

To a nation growing more and more weary of the increasing cost of tax burdens and a nation which never has looked kindly upon crime as a source of livelihood, there is an answer. We can provide the training that will enable the handicapped person to use his abilities. Thus it is clear that we have: (1) *the problem*—disability; (2) *the way*—rehabilitation; (3) *the answer*—employment for the vocationally handicapped, including the homebound.

Will you, as principal of your community high school, step forward to lead your community to this realistic way of thinking—planning—and doing? That would be real American leadership.

Summary of the presentation made by P. A. McLENDON

Present Day Activities—Future Possibilities

POSSIBILITIES for developing adequate rehabilitation services are unlimited. These services can benefit the hard of hearing, defective sight, physical deficiencies, psychological (emotional) handicaps, as well as mental retardation. Some of these handicaps are only vaguely understood at the present time.

It is doubtful that any one resource is sufficient to the formidable problem presented by these individuals. Federal, state and community must develop a coordinated program. Key persons dealing with youth must be alert to and knowledgeable of individual problems. Key persons include parents, doctors, nurses, and school teachers. Early recognition is most important.

Present facilities, agencies, and knowledge leave a lot to be desired. Streamlined facilities, manned by competent personnel, exist in few community areas. Leadership to develop these facilities and education of certain segments of the population are needed. Capable personnel in all disciplines having to do with rehabilitation are lacking. Finally, a good program for restoration of the handicapped is expensive.

P. A. McLendon is Chairman of the Rehabilitation Council for Metropolitan Washington of the Medical Society of the District of Columbia, Washington, D. C.

Summary of the presentation made by A. B. C. KNUDSON

Who Are the Handicapped?

THERE are large numbers of students handicapped by known or undetermined disabilities which may be either physical or mental, or a combination. These disabilities vary considerably in degree and the solution for helping the individual student is dependent first of all on accurate evaluation of the "whole person."

THE SCREENING PROCESS

By means of screening the students of a school, one is able to classify the types of disabilities and the degrees of severity. The screening must be carefully done in order that no student will be overlooked who has a physical or mental deterrent to his highest potential in school, and subsequently in employment.

A. B. C. Knudson is Director of the Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation Service of the Veterans Administration, Washington, D. C.

SOCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL OBJECTIONS TO DISABILITY

There is an inherent tendency on the part of the public to avoid an individual, including students, who have a disfiguring disability or a severe emotional problem. Although great strides have been made in overcoming the public's attitude, a great deal more can be done with proper planning and adequate educational measures. The most opportune time to begin such a campaign is during the pre-school and school periods. This may be effectively accomplished if there is understanding and co-operation on the part of the family, the school, and the community. Help should be given by various organizations of the community.

GUIDANCE IN SCHOOL CURRICULUM

In addition to specific help, as may be indicated by the physician for a physically or emotionally handicapped student, there must be competent and adequate guidance during the school years. With proper counseling and selection of appropriate courses in school, the student may be given tremendous assistance so that he will be able to assume, upon graduation, his place of responsibility in our economic structure without fear of prejudice or misunderstanding on the part of those with whom he will associate. In addition to the above, there frequently are specific school activities which can be of definite advantage in attaining the most feasible objective. This objective should be classified into component parts; namely, physical, mental, social, and vocational.

ABILITY, APTITUDE, AND MOTIVATION OF THE HANDICAPPED STUDENT

Unless the positive abilities of the handicapped student are quantitatively evaluated, there will be a weakness in the over-all planning for his successfully attaining the desirable goal. Frequently the attitudes of the student must be modified, or perhaps entirely changed. This most certainly must be done if he is to understand the help which is being extended to him. The morale and motivation of the student are most important in order to gain his cooperation and zealous interest in an all-out effort to react and work normally in selected employment.

COOPERATION OF INDUSTRY AND THE COMMUNITY

This phase is an educational program which has already made far-reaching advances in giving equal opportunity to the handicapped individual. With further effort to increase effective relationships and understanding on the part of industry and the public, we may look to a fuller solution for the disabled student and his problems.

NECESSITY OF FOLLOW-UP

The entire program will fail if adequate and complete follow-up is not maintained so that there will be no possibility of relapse or subsequent failure while the student is still in school, and even after he is accepted in

a job. The implementation and operation of an effective follow-up system is as important for this program as the original screening of students and evaluation of their disabilities. Actually it must be considered an integral part of our plan to rehabilitate handicapped students.

Summary of the presentation made by J. HARVEY DALY

Employment of the Handicapped

I. EMPLOYER'S OBJECTIONS TO HIRING THE HANDICAPPED

FIRST of all, sympathetic as we, or they, may be, we must be realistic and that means admitting the fact that: many people—and employers are people—have a certain repugnance for visible physical deformities. Such people are, consequently, embarrassed by contact with the physically handicapped and, hence, shy away from them. In addition, employers are wary of hiring and handicapped people because they have certain fears regarding their capabilities and performance. For example:

1. Employers fear inability of handicapped to perform jobs acceptably.
2. Employers fear that physical deformities and warped personalities go hand in hand and that, consequently, the handicapped will be unable to get along well with other people.
3. Employers fear the handicapped can become a serious morale problem.
4. Employers fear sympathy will impede or hinder normal employer-employee relationships.
5. Employers fear the handicapped will be unable to use standard office or shop equipment.
6. Employers fear inability of handicapped to move unaided, thus requiring the assistance of other employees.

Employers also hesitate to revise or amend company practices and procedures. For example: (1) they are reluctant to waive physical examination standards; (2) they are reluctant to revise work assignments; and (3) they hesitate to undertake possible rearrangement of office and plant equipment. Employers also have a fear, often unfounded, of the additional financial burden they might incur in event of a second injury.

II. SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The secondary schools can be of inestimable service in the following manner: (1) by knowing the industrial job needs of the community, (2) by training the handicapped to fill the community's job needs, and (3) by being realistic in appraising handicapped person's performance capacities. Also, few people know the techniques of applying for a job; or are they properly prepared when they do apply. Consequently, they fare poorly.

J. Harvey Daly is Chairman of the Commissioners' Committee on the Employment of the Physically Handicapped, Washington, D. C.

Nervousness, lack of preparation, and unfamiliarity with interviewing techniques are the greatest factors in preventing people from getting jobs, and failure to get along with people is the greatest factor preventing people from keeping a job. Therefore, each handicapped person, prior to seeking employment, should be put through a program of enlightenment covering the above topics.

All too frequently, handicapped, as well as other people, when applying for a position are not prepared to answer questions, are totally unfamiliar with employment interviewing techniques, and are not cognizant of what they owe an employer and that an employer owes them.

HOW TO MAKE THE TESTING PROGRAM FUNCTIONAL

CHAIRMAN: *George H. Gilbert*, Principal, Lower Merion Senior High School, Ardmore, Pennsylvania

DISCUSSANTS:

V. A. Bell, Principal, Brookings High School, Brookings, South Dakota
C. W. Thomasson, Chairman, Division of Education and Psychology,
Henderson State Teachers College, Arkadelphia, Arkansas

Summary of the presentation made by PAUL W. STODDARD

An Adequate Testing Program for All Students

FOR many years we have been thinking of testing in the secondary schools in terms of intelligence, aptitude, and achievement in individual subjects. Certainly these are desirable for all high-school students. The thesis set forth in this paper, however, is that, in providing an adequate testing program for everyone, something additional is needed which does not now generally exist. This is the generalized achievement test given toward the end of the student's career. We refer to it in our school as the "Comprehensive Six-Hour Senior Examination."

The Senior Examination is given in February of the student's final year. It takes place all in a single day, lasting from 8:30 to 3.30, with time out for lunch. It is administered to the entire senior class in a single room, the gymnasium, with adequate provision for individual comfortable seating, and with no opportunity for dishonesty. The tests are corrected, in part, mechanically at the state university, and, in part, manually by the faculty of the school. Final scores are available to the students and to college admissions officers within a month after the examination has taken place, usually not later than the fifteenth of March.

Paul W. Stoddard is Principal of the Housatonic Valley Regional High School in Falls Village, Connecticut.

The test consists of two principal parts, each part further subdivided. Part I is a standard high-school equivalency examination, such as is given by state departments of education in the issuance of equivalency certificates. It is divided into four sections—English (both mechanics and literature), social studies, mathematics, and science. Occasional criticism has been voiced that, since such a test places emphasis on academic subjects, it is slanted in favor of the college preparatory student. Although in our school such criticism is perhaps less justified than in some others—since every student, regardless of course, must take four years of English, three of social studies, and two each of mathematics and science—it is to meet this objection that the second part of the examination has been devised. This is the part that is composed by the school.

Part II of the test takes place in the afternoon, and appears in mimeographed form. It consists of three sections, all prepared by members of the school staff. The first section is of one hundred names of famous people, which the student is asked to identify according to occupation or profession. (It has been found that such a list is about the best test there is of general knowledge). Like all questions on the test, these are designed to establish the range of the student's knowledge, so some are necessarily very easy and some necessarily very hard. The second section consists of 250 multiple-choice questions, scientifically proportioned so that areas of subject-matter not covered in the morning test—agriculture, industrial arts, homemaking, commercial studies, and the like—are introduced, as well as some other areas not covered by the school's curriculum—movies, sports, the Bible, and the like. In short, the aim is to find out just how extensive the student's knowledge is, even though some of this knowledge may have been gained outside of school. The third section consists of ten essay questions, one each for such large areas of thought as art, music, American literature and history, and current events.

A total score on the examination is obtained—with a maximum possible score of about 1,000. At present we do not use this score as a determining factor in graduation, but it is used, together with course grades, in determining final average and rank in class. For the majority of students, there is no remarkable difference between examination score and class grades. Bright pupils are likely to be bright on both occasions. But there are some surprises. There is the average student who comes out near the top, betraying knowledge of which teachers were quite unaware; and there is the student with good marks whose test scores indicate that, despite the cramming, nothing much lies below the surface. The examination tends to bring these people into truer perspective, and their final average and rank in class tends to give a truer picture of real ability.

Pupils, faculty, and college admission officers have been much interested in this "Comprehensive Six-Hour Senior Examination," and not merely as a matter of curiosity. For the faculty and for the college, it is one additional bit of evidence added to that already existing. For the pupil, it

points up his strengths and his weaknesses. For everyone, it brings supposed knowledge, based on grades, and actual knowledge, based on examination, into balance. It also indicates, since much of it can be compared with national standards, wherein the school is doing the most effective and the least effective work. And, finally, it gives those of us who are old-fashioned, the satisfaction of feeling that a high-school diploma still means something, at least, in terms of academic knowledge.

Summary of the presentation made by ERNEST WHITWORTH

A Qualifying Testing Program for Scholarships

DURING the past ten years considerable concern has been expressed regarding the impending shortage of trained talent, particularly in the fields of engineering and the sciences. Much has been said also regarding the fact that far too many of the most able youth in our nation do not continue their education beyond the secondary school. This lack of the maximum development of the individual represents a real loss to society in general, but more specifically to the continued development and security of our nation. We are well acquainted, I am sure, with the many reasons why more of our capable young men and women do not take advantage of higher education. Of these, we can certainly single out that of the need for financial assistance.

In the last few years the number of large-scale sponsored scholarship programs have increased markedly. The number of scholarships being awarded annually is continually increasing. College and universities are allocating more and more of their funds for scholarship purposes. Scholarship activity in many of our states is being intensified in an effort to meet the problem. With all of this, however, it is doubtful, in the minds of many, that we are doing much more than merely "scratching the surface" in a time of rising costs.

Most scholarships today are awarded on the basis of ability and promise of academic success. The amounts of aid awarded, however, are usually determined according to need. As a basis for selecting the most able students for awards, scholarship sponsors generally use a combination of test results, secondary-school record, and personal qualifications. Among the requirements of these sponsors is the need for an inexpensive qualifying test to select a relatively small group of finalists from a relatively large group of eligible candidates. It is quite obvious that, if each sponsor were to administer a separate test for his program, a heavy burden would be placed on secondary-school officials, the school routine unnecessarily disrupted, and students subjected to the harassment of duplicate and

Ernest Whitworth is Program Director for Scholarship Qualifying Test, Educational Testing Service in Princeton, New Jersey.

multiple testing. In order to avoid these undesirable conditions, the College Entrance Examination Board, in cooperation with the National Merit Scholarship Corporation, the National Honor Society, and other sponsors, requested Educational Testing Service to provide a single scholarship screening test which would be designed to serve the needs of those sponsors requiring such a test.

The Scholarship Qualifying Test was developed in response to these requests and received the support of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. This test had its first administration last October. More than 166,000 high-school seniors in 12,500 schools took the test at that time. The response from students and principals is highly gratifying. The extent of school participation by state varied from eighteen per cent to eighty-seven per cent of all secondary schools in the state. The largest number of schools participating in a single state was that in New York with 989.

Although most high-school principals are probably familiar with the SQT program, perhaps it would be appropriate to review some of the more pertinent information as follows:

1. It is high-level scholastic aptitude-type test designed to differentiate primarily among students of high ability and having a general difficulty level comparable to that of the Scholastic Aptitude Test of the College Board. It requires two hours of testing time and yields separate verbal and quantitative scores.

2. Any high-school senior seeking to qualify for a college scholarship is eligible to take the test if he is registered for it by his principal.

3. Any principal may register his school for the test and administer it to any or all members of his senior class under certain prescribed conditions.

4. The results of the test are being used for preliminary selection of scholarship candidates by the National Merit Scholarship Program, the National Honor Society Scholarship Program, and a number of other national and regional scholarship programs.

5. High school principals have received their students' score reports along with interpretive data suitable for guidance purposes.

Colleges and universities facing an increasing number of scholarship applicants are giving serious consideration to the use of the Scholarship Qualifying Test in their scholarship programs. A number of institutions are already requesting score reports for their scholarship candidates and a number of others are obtaining the results by means of the secondary-school transcripts. As the demands on higher education increase and college enrollments begin to swell, many institutions will probably be forced to become more selective in their admissions procedures. Whatever implications the Scholarship Qualifying Test has for admissions purposes in the future will undoubtedly develop as a result of further experience with it.

WHAT ARE TRENDS IN GUIDANCE SERVICES IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *George W. R. Kirkpatrick*, Principal, Bala-Cynwyd Junior High School, Bala-Cynwyd, Pennsylvania

DISCUSSANTS:

Lois B. Gholston, Principal, Opelika Junior High School, Opelika, Alabama

Gene D. Maybee, Principal, Tappan Junior High School, Ann Arbor, Michigan

Summary of the presentation made by CARL CHERKIS

WHEN guidance services were originally introduced to the junior high schools, the function of the guidance counselor was exclusively along lines of vocational guidance and educational placement. In New York City, though the guidance concept has broadened, the official title of the teacher licensed to do guidance work is still "Educational and Vocational Guidance Counselor."

As a reaction to this narrow concept of guidance, educators soon equaled the purpose of guidance with that of education. Guidance, they said in effect, consisted of aiding the pupil to achieve personal integration in a social setting and to adjust to the life of the community. An outgrowth of this definition was that, since the classroom teacher was the school person who knew the pupil best and since guidance and education were synonymous, then the classroom teacher should be the chief guidance officer. The classroom teacher, however, did not have the training in guidance techniques—so the guidance counselor came into his own. This does not mean that the official teacher is not basic to a successful guidance program. Without a competent, imaginative, guidance-minded teacher, the program cannot succeed.

The key school officer in the junior high-school guidance organization is not the guidance counselor but the principal. For a school to do an effective job, guidance services must be defined and delimited, a staff must be organized and trained, and the duties of the members clarified. This is important to prevent overlapping of activities with the possibility of resultant frictions.

Ideally, each school should have the services of one guidance counselor for each 200 pupils. Few systems have achieved the ideal. In practice, supervisors allot administrative time to trained teachers for guidance service.

Carl Cherkis is Principal of the Simon Baruch Junior High School in New York City.

A school guidance committee should include the following people: a licensed guidance counselor, a teacher to serve as a ninth-year personal counselor, one to serve as ninth-year educational and vocational placement counselor, an eighth-year counselor, a seventh-year counselor who also attends to orientation of new students, a health counselor, a job-placement counselor for in-school pupils, the teacher in charge of school service squads, the attendance counselor, the remedial reading teacher, the school nurse, the special speech teacher, and the teacher who deals with problems of foreign-language pupils. In small schools, several of these functions may have to be telescoped.

Discipline has not been mentioned as a function of any member of the school guidance committee. This is not an oversight, but a planned omission. To ask guidance counselors to function as disciplinary officers automatically dooms the program to failure. Guidance people do not administer punishment. They are friends, advisers, confidants, helpers. They do not sit in judgment. A dean in charge of discipline should sit in on the meetings of the guidance committee, but he should not be considered as a member of the committee. Where punishment is needed, he should administer it.

Functioning centrally but on call as needed by the school should be a psychologist, a psychiatrist, a psychiatric social worker, and representatives of welfare, corrective, recreational, therapeutic, and religious agencies. It goes without saying that parent cooperation must be wooed where necessary.

Who can benefit from guidance services? Any pupil in the school. He may be a perfectly adjusted pupil who cannot solve the problem of shyness in the presence of girls without some help or he may not be able to get along with his science teacher. On the other hand, he may have problems so deep-seated that he needs clinical assistance. He may suffer from severe environmental dislocations. He may have serious educational deficiencies. He may be physically inadequate. He may be a lad who cannot read or one who is so withdrawn that he trembles when the teacher speaks to him. He may be the victim of an over-ambitious mother who is pressing him for the attainment of impossible goals.

Today's guidance teacher knows that he is not a psychiatrist. He does not attempt to diagnose and suggest treatment which may cause damage to the pupil. He does know the principles of good mental hygiene. He practices these principles and teaches them to the classroom teacher and to the parents. In many cases, the most that he can do is to try to remove some of the more obvious causes of discomfort, and to try to make the pupil a little happier in a situation that he cannot basically alter.

The supervisor must set up a referral system which provides referral machinery not only for official and subject teachers but also for parents and for the pupils themselves. Once the referral has been made, information seeking forms must be distributed to all interested people.

Because of lack of time to do a thorough guidance job with every pupil in the school, time must be provided for group guidance. This can be done either during the core period or in a period especially designated for this purpose. Assembly periods must be allocated for group guidance during which guidance films are shown; outside speakers are invited; forums, group discussions, question and answer periods dealing with a given aspect of the planned guidance program are scheduled.

Articulation must be provided both at the elementary- and senior high-school level. The counselor must not only study the records and standardized test results but he must also consult personally with the teachers and the "feeding" schools. He must send interest and aptitude questionnaires to the parents to determine special class placement. He must provide opportunity for the pupils and their parents to visit the school to become acquainted with the plant, to meet his new teachers, and to ask questions. Before he leaves, he must be presented with a "Welcome" booklet in some form.

After the records are studied, if gross discrepancies appear, a series of retests in intelligence, reading, mathematics, work-studies skills, and aptitudes must be administered prior to his entrance to the school to assure his best adjustment. The same care must be experienced at the upper level. Before a pupil is sent either to a vocational or an academic high school, before he selects his course, the junior high school must set him on the right track through interest and aptitude studies, through providing for visits to the schools, through invitations to graduates to return to tell about their new schools, and through parent interviews.

The isolate must be helped through exploitation of his strengths to participate in the student-life program of the school. Where necessary, the needy pupil must be helped to find part-time employment. This is one of the best ways of involving the local community in the life of the school and of erasing erroneous impressions. It is a sad fact of adolescent life that a business man passing an elementary school where two eight-year olds are wrestling on the sidewalk is likely to murmur, "How cute!," but the same man passing the junior high school where two fifteen-year olds are wrestling will mutter, "Juvenile delinquents!" If he is enticed into giving one of these fifteen-year olds a job, he will gain greater respect not only for the pupil but also for the school that is educating him.

The most important of all guidance trends is the trend toward a planned, integrated effort to change the unhappy pupil into a happy one, and to lead the happy pupil along the road toward happy, useful, purposeful adulthood.

Summary of the presentation made by GENE G. LONG

JUNIOR high-school guidance services vary from situations where there is little if any formal procedures all the way up the scale to the point where elaborate techniques are employed to assist the student. Unfortunately, most school districts are unable to provide the optimum of service due to the shortage of funds and trained personnel.

The San Jose Unified School District has had parent conferencing in grades K through six for quite a few years. The term "parent conferencing" refers to a program where a parent of every student is asked to come to the school for a conference at least twice each school year. After a reasonable period of operation, a survey was conducted among the parents as well as the teachers. The results showed that this technique of reporting pupil progress was greatly favored over the traditional report card.

Three years ago the junior high-school principals of San Jose, together with the superintendent and his staff, devoted some time to studying the parent conferencing method of reporting pupil progress to see if there were not certain facets of it that could be used to advantage in junior high-school education. As a result of this study, a pilot program was set up in the seventh grade of one of our junior high schools in the fall of 1954.

Report cards were not eliminated, but the parent conference did assist the student in making the transition from the elementary situation where no letter grades were used into the secondary situation, which, at the present writing, must have definite letter grades. Due to the results obtained in the pilot program, parent conferencing was initiated for seventh-grade pupils in all junior high schools of our community in September 1955.

At this point it would be well to describe briefly the scheduling and duties of a parent conferencing teacher. Edwin Markham Junior High School has an enrollment of 1,400 students including 463 seventh-grade pupils. The class is broken down into fourteen working groups of approximately thirty-three each. Each conferencing teacher is responsible for two groups, assumes all counseling activities for the sixty-five students, makes all home contacts, makes all teacher contacts, and teaches both groups in a double period situation which includes all of the language arts and social studies.

Prior to the actual conference with a parent, the conferencing teacher sends out report forms to all teachers who work with a particular student. A complete report is then made to the parent and in cases where other teachers are particularly concerned, the conferencing teacher reports back

Gene G. Long is Principal of the Edwin Markham Junior High School, San Jose, California.

to the other subject teachers following the conference. Ninety-five per cent of the parents of seventh-grade pupils came to school when requested.

Each conferencing teacher has two non-teaching periods per day, one of which is the regular preparation period that all secondary teachers receive in the district. In addition many extra materials were made available to these people to make it possible to provide a greater activities program in the social studies classes. Therefore, the additional expense is that of one teacher plus the cost of extra materials.

The results of the program are not conclusive since it is only in its second year of operation. However, during the first year a detailed record was kept, and it was found that there were less behavior referrals, less negative progress reports sent home, and a fewer number of D's and E's than we had ever had from a seventh-grade class.

It would be impossible to make a statement at this time that this new type of program is a definite trend in the counseling services in junior high-school education. The test must still be made as to whether or not all the desirable factors operating in the seventh grade would operate to the same degree in the eighth grade and on to the other levels of secondary education. However, many other junior high schools, and some senior high schools, are experimenting with various ways of getting parents to work more closely with the teachers of their children. Educators are in general agreement that a good home-school relationship must exist if the student is to achieve his greatest potential.

WHAT ARE SOME PROMISING ADMINISTRATIVE PRACTICES IN THE LARGE HIGH SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *L. H. McCue, Jr.*, Principal, E. C. Glass High School, Lynchburg, Virginia

DISCUSSANTS:

Olin C. Webb, Principal, Miami Senior High School, Miami, Florida

Elmer W. Kizer, Principal, Hughes High School, Cincinnati, Ohio

Summary of the presentation made by GEORGE W. CONNELLY

IN AT least one state, any high school of over six hundred students is considered a large high school. I might designate this size of school as minimal to the classification of large. However, my experience has been in schools of over one thousand students, and I shall draw primarily upon my own experience. Three administrative practices will be discussed, each of which has the value of capitalizing upon the flexibility of a large school while tending to create some of the feeling of warmth and ease of coordination of the smaller school.

George W. Connelly is Principal of the Roosevelt High School in Chicago, Illinois.

The first administrative practice to be considered is the organization and use of the school reading committee. The purpose of this committee is to provide a flexible means of appraising the strengths and weaknesses of the reading abilities and habits of the student body so that the faculty may modify instruction accordingly in the various areas of learning and instruction.

The committee usually includes the principal, the adjustment teacher,¹ the chairman of the English department, who usually chairs this committee, one or more English teachers, and selected teachers from the other departments of the school. (The membership of this last mentioned group of teachers is fluid in accordance with the nature of the instructional problem under study.)

For example, let us assume that the faculty is especially concerned about the student body's ability to read with comprehension in specific content areas. The adjustment teacher would be the key person in analyzing test data on the students so as to infer what kinds of weaknesses might be causing poor reading comprehension. Together with the English teachers, she could help plan an attack upon the problem from the viewpoint of reading the content material of the English course of study. Then with the assistance of teachers from other departments, definite approaches could be made to reading in specific subject areas. Basic to this plan of operation, of course, is the assumption that we do not learn to study, or to read, in a vacuum, but rather in definite areas or problem-solving contexts.

The across-the-board composition of this committee has at least two outstanding values. *First*, because it brings together knowledge and insight from all reaches of faculty involvement, it tends to lay the basis for sound and sensitive planning. *Second*, because it involves at the planning level all personnel who are involved in implementing the specifics of planning, it tends to promote insightful and enthusiastic execution of whatever plans may be adopted.

This committee is a permanent one because problems in the teaching of reading are permanent. However, the specific concern of the committee and portions of its membership keep changing in consonance with the projects under consideration.

A second administrative practice is the organization and operation of the school curriculum committee. The purpose of this committee is to explore strengths, weaknesses, gaps, and overlaps in the school's curricular offerings. It is composed of the principal, guidance personnel, and key teachers from each department of the school. It is a permanent committee whose membership will change as the faculty may suggest, and the law of the situation may demand.

¹The title given to a full-time guidance person who heads up the program of testing, evaluation, organization of special instructional groups, and the like.

Through the proper functioning of this type of committee, some of this disjointedness of the "subjects-taught-in-isolation" organization tends to be obviated. The left and the right hand are thus kept better acquainted with each other's activity. Also, the particular contributions of each department to the total curriculum tend to be more generally known.

A third administrative practice is the principal's advisory council. The purpose of this council is two-fold: *first*, to serve as an advisory body and sounding board to the principal—at his request—regarding the development of policy, administrative and organizational practices, and the like; *second*, to advise and counsel with the principal, upon the request of the faculty, regarding all matters affecting the faculty-working conditions, morale, and the like.

This council is composed of members appointed by the various departments in the school. Membership may be for one or more years depending upon the will of the faculty. It is desirable, of course, that there be some continuity on this council; hence, only a few teachers should be replaced each year.

The proper functioning of this council is basic to the existence of a condition of self-remedying democracy in a school. Courses of action tend to be understood before they are launched; incipient misunderstandings tend to be clarified before they reach the root-taking stage.

I have attempted to describe three promising administrative practices in the large high school. To round out the cycle we ought to show how the incorporation of the students of the all-school council might complete the picture. However, time and space may not permit of this in this presentation.

Summary of the presentation made by M. M. BLACK

AT THE 1953 fall meeting of the Oklahoma Secondary-School Principals Association, a suggestion was made that a State-Wide Curriculum Improvement Commission be organized. As a follow-up of this suggestion, a second meeting was held at the University of Oklahoma in the spring of 1954. The meeting was attended by several high-school principals, and a working organization was perfected. From this beginning, it has grown to include a large number of secondary schools in Oklahoma. Since this small beginning, the Commission has been broadened to include administrators, supervisors, teachers, students, and parents. A statement concerning the Oklahoma Curriculum Improvement Commission, taken from a publication of the secretary, reads as follows:

M. M. Black is Principal of Central High School in Tulsa, Oklahoma.

The Oklahoma Curriculum Improvement Commission is an organization of school people and school systems designed to promote and assist in curriculum improvement on all levels. It is composed of representatives of school superintendents, high-school and elementary-school principals, classroom teachers, institutions of higher learning, and the State Department of Education. It is supported by participating schools and by grants-in-aid from various sources; the State Department of Education is supplying administration and technical assistance; institutions of higher learning are supplying resource persons.

From the same publication: The purposes of the Oklahoma Curriculum Improvement Commission are:

Promotion—Encouraging all schools of Oklahoma to participate in a state-wide program of curriculum improvement.

Leadership and Support—Providing leadership and resources for such improvement efforts at the local level.

Public Review—Informing the public about the status of instruction and indicating why additional resources may be needed to achieve improvement.

Early in the 1955-56 school year, the Curriculum Commission launched upon an action program and decided, first of all, to conduct a state-wide testing program. This action was taken after much thought and study about the then existing conditions in the high schools of Oklahoma. It had been pointed out by school people as well as lay people that many of our schools were not preparing our students adequately in mathematics and science. About this same time the Chamber of Commerce in Oklahoma City became interested in the educational facilities in the Southwest. Interest was heightened when a committee of businessmen made a trip through the eastern part of the United States attempting to interest industry in locating in our area. They were frequently asked the questions: "What technical schools do you have in your part of the country?" "Can you adequately train the necessary research people which will be demanded in our industry in the future?"

In order to answer the questions, these businessmen came to the schoolmen and asked for an appraisal of the secondary-school program in Oklahoma. As a result of this inquiry, Dr. Robert MacVicar, Dean of the Graduate School of Oklahoma A. & M. College, was loaned to the Frontiers of Science Corporation which, at that time, had been organized by businessmen in Oklahoma City. Incidentally, they had raised approximately \$300,000 in private capital to promote investigation, research, and improvement among the various educational media of the region.

As I previously stated, a testing program was then decided upon as the first step in determining the needs and curriculum revisions necessary. The Commission selected the Iowa Tests of Educational Development and thought, at that time, they might be administered to 10-12,000 seniors in the spring of 1956.

However, with the impetus given by our state department of education and the keen interest on the part of superintendents and principals

all over the state, nearly 70,000 students from grades nine through twelve took the test. The results were made available through Science Research Associates to the superintendents and principals in the various schools of the state. Then came the all-important question: What to do with the results?

In an effort to evaluate the results of the testing program, a Curriculum Improvement Workshop was conducted at the University of Oklahoma for four weeks in the summer of 1956. This was subsidized, in part, by the Frontiers of Science. A rather thorough study was made by the participants, and guideposts were established for releasing the information to the public. Excerpts from the Workshop Report follow:

The group suggested:

1. That the findings be presented to the administrative staff, to the school faculties, and to the public.
2. That committees of teachers be formed to study the meanings of the various tests and the implications for curriculum improvement.
3. That further testing be done with these and other tests.
4. That these scores be used in guidance and counseling.

The group urged these cautions:

1. Those evaluating the results of the test should realize that students having had experience in taking standardized tests had some advantage over those not having participated in similar testing programs.
2. Each school should assess its curriculum in the light of that school's purposes and thus avoid the danger of reorganizing or freezing the curriculum to gear it to the content of the ITED (Iowa Tests of Educational Development).
3. Never assume that the ITED tells the whole story or always the right story about a pupil; these test scores should always be examined in relation to other test data.
4. Questionable individual scores should be checked by the administration of other tests.
5. Those interpreting the tests should be adequately informed in the use of the scores to avoid misuse.
6. The use of the tests with the individual pupil must always be professional and confidential.
7. Avoid comparison of schools and school programs on the basis of ITED scores.

Recommendations to the Curriculum Improvement Commission:

1. That the Commission explore the possibility of giving a check test soon.
2. That there be additional area post-testing workshops.
3. That the Commission encourage each school that gave the test to have representatives present at these workshops dealing with the interpretation of the ITED scores.

Many schools have evaluated their curriculum much more carefully since the results of the tests became known. It has resulted in the improvement of the offerings in many schools. In addition to taking a good look at the current program, it has pointed the way for continued improvement of the curriculum in Oklahoma secondary schools. Much more long-range planning is being done. Many of the schools are planning to give

the tests on a systematic basis in the future. Guidance programs in the schools have improved; counselors are finding the test data to be a valuable tool in their hands. The Oklahoma Curriculum Improvement Commission will, in my judgment, continue to exert effective leadership in the future.

WHAT ARE SOME PROMISING ADMINISTRATIVE PRACTICES IN THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *Barney A. Hays*, Principal, Highland Park High School, Topeka, Kansas

DISCUSSANTS:

Sister M. Patrice, O. S. F., Supervisor of Secondary Schools, Milwaukee Archdiocese, Milwaukee, Wisconsin

Harold A. Haynes, Deputy Superintendent in Charge of Coordinated Educational Services, D. C. Public Schools, Washington, D. C.

Howard M. Elder, Principal, El Dorado High School, El Dorado, Arkansas

Summary of the presentation made by JOSEPH MANCH

Effective Ways of Regulating Student Dress

IN THE process of working with school delinquents during the past few years, it has become apparent to the speaker that certain styles of dress have become identified with hoodlumism in the minds of police, educators, and citizens generally. In fact, many teachers feel that the way in which boys and girls dress is frequently reflected in their behavior.

Accepting this as a premise, it seemed desirable to attempt in some way to encourage boys and girls of high-school age to face the challenge of improving standards of dress in the hope that this would favorably affect attitudes and conduct as well. For a number of obvious reasons, we in Buffalo felt that the best way to achieve this purpose might be to ask students themselves to make some recommendations for appropriate dress in high school and to suggest ways in which such recommendations might be translated into action.

With this in mind, the speaker took the problem to the Inter-High School Student Council, which represents all fourteen of the public high schools of Buffalo. The Council was enthusiastic about the possibility of drafting a series of recommendations, and a committee of fourteen mem-

Joseph Manch is Associate Superintendent for School-Community Coordination, Board of Education, Buffalo, New York.

bers, one from each of the high schools, was appointed to prepare a draft for the Council's consideration. In November 1955, the Inter-High Council, after lengthy and thoughtful discussion, accepted the committee's proposals and asked that they be submitted for reaction to the high-school principals. The principals indicated they would be pleased to see the recommended standards of dress maintained in their schools.

The proposals were printed on a single sheet and distributed to all schools in sufficient quantity so that copies might be posted on the bulletin boards in all home rooms. The recommendations included items of dress for boys and girls in academic, vocational, and technical high schools. They were simple and direct and did not call for apparel which would be expensive, uncomfortable, or impractical. In the main, they suggested that boys wear shirts and ties with suit jacket, sport jacket, or sweater; standard trousers or khakis; and clean and polished shoes. They discouraged the wearing of dungarees, T-shirts and sweat shirts, and extreme styles of shoes, including hob nail or "motor cycle" boots. For girls, the Council recommended blouses, sweaters and jackets, skirts, jumpers, suits, conservative dresses and shoes appropriate to the rest of the costume. Girls were advised not to wear such apparel as V-neck sweaters without blouse, shorts, party-type dresses, slacks, ornate jewelry, T-shirts, and sweat shirts. There was a good response to these recommendations. Several high schools adopted the proposals after action by their own student councils, and there was much helpful publicity in the public press. Some schools conducted special student assembly programs to demonstrate the Council's recommendations.

As the program has developed in the high schools, there have been indications that elementary-school pupils are eager to follow the example of their older brothers and sisters in the improvement of dress. It should be noted that throughout the campaign the voluntary nature of the program has been emphasized. We have felt that the impetus for improvement must come from the students themselves with the encouragement and guidance of adults.

The program has now been in effect for about one year. Judging from some of the statements which have been made by school personnel, students, and lay citizens who have been observing the program in action, we are encouraged to hope that, as teenagers continue to improve their habits of dress in school, there will be a substantial improvement in their general conduct. Our program, we feel, is pointing up what educators have felt for many years—that there is great value in encouraging young people to take responsibility for their own attitudes and conduct. We have faith in the ability and readiness of the vast majority of teenagers to accept this kind of responsibility.

Summary of the presentation made by CALLOWAY TAULBEE

Dealing with the Student Marriage Problem

IN PRESENTING these remarks on the problem of student marriages in high school, it is realized that such a problem does not exist in many areas. It is further realized, however that it has become acute in some localities. Our comments then are directed to those administrators who do have the problem. It is our hope that, by sharing our own experiences, some help may be given them in their own situations.

In the school year, 1955-56, thirty-two high-school girls and two high-school boys of Artesia High School were married. This represents approximately six per cent of the entire high-school population which was approximately 500. As the number of marriages continued to climb, the faculty and administration became more and more concerned. Some of the factors which caused greatest concern—in addition to the number of marriages—were the large number who dropped out of school after marriage and the related problems of those who remained in school. The situation actually produced a contagious atmosphere—getting married was the thing to do so far as the high-school girls were concerned. It became a common attitude that any graduating senior girl without a diamond must have something wrong with her. At this point it was decided that something should be done or attempted.

The problem had been presented to the student council in 1954-55 for discussion and recommendations. After lengthy consideration, during which there was very little agreement on any policy, the council reported that they felt the problem was strictly an administrative one and should be handled accordingly.

As a first step toward some plan of action, a meeting of the high-school faculty was held for the purpose of deciding what, if any, action was indicated. At this meeting there was unanimous agreement that something should be done. Many of the group felt that such drastic measures as suspension or expulsion should be applied. After considerable discussion, during which every person expressed himself, it was agreed that a committee should be appointed for further study of the question. This committee was empowered with the authority to call in consultants and was to make a report to the faculty at a later date. Members of the committee were chosen from volunteers who were interested in serving.

At the first meeting of the committee it was agreed that an invitation should be given Dr. Wilson Ivins of the University of New Mexico to meet with the committee and also with the faculty. Dr. Ivins has shown continued interest in the problem for some time and has published a pamphlet on "Student Marriages in New Mexico High Schools." He

Calloway Taulbee is Principal of the Artesia High School in Artesia, New Mexico.

graciously accepted our invitation and spent about two days with us. He first met with the committee and then with the faculty. The report of the committee was given and accepted by the faculty with the reservation that some refinement be made and the revised report be submitted at a later meeting of the faculty. This was done and the faculty accepted the revised report. After faculty acceptance, it was officially adopted by the Board of Education as school policy. The policy, as adopted, was made a part of the student handbook and became effective with the opening of the school term in September 1956. The policy is as follows:

Artesia High School discourages marriage of high-school students. We do not feel that the best educational interests can possibly be served through marriages which take place at such an early age. The adjustments and responsibilities should not be taken lightly. Happy and successful marriages form the basic foundation of our country. Such marriages require maturity of judgment and considerable knowledge and understanding. It is important that the most favorable circumstances possible attend each and every marriage. Attending school with the demands and responsibilities of the classroom does not provide such favorable circumstances.

Because of these reasons and many others unexpressed, we urge all students to complete their high-school education before planning marriage. Marriage is a full-time job, especially during the early days when there are so many adjustments to be made. If there are those who plan to be married and continue in school, the following statement of policy must be understood and adhered to.

1. Before getting married, the student will have a conference with the high-school principal or counselor.

2. As soon as a student returns to school after marriage, he will be required to have a conference with the principal.

3. If, after the conference, the student continues in school, he will have the same status as other students except in those extracurricular organizations where special provisions have been adopted concerning married students.

4. In accepting equal status with other students, it is to be understood that married students will not be given special consideration with respect to school policy. Attendance must be regular. An undue amount of absence regardless of cause may result in dismissal from school. If it becomes necessary to withdraw from school, the student will lose the work for the semester in which he withdraws. Since we have no personnel for home-bound students, it will not be possible to complete work outside the classroom.

While it is too early to predict the effectiveness of what has been done, it is at least encouraging to note that only four marriages have taken place during the first half of the present school year. We are quite cognizant of the fact that we have merely scratched the surface in solving our problem. Continued study and more adequate education are certainly indicated. Courses in family living, given early in high school, are being considered. We do feel that we have taken a forward step in facing the problem. We also realize that we must continue our efforts.

Summary of the presentation made by GERALD F. HOPKINS

Using Citizen Advisory Committees

AN APPROACH to citizen committees and their value is integrally tied up with a good public relations program and based upon the premise that schools belong to the people of the community, that they may determine the kind of a program the school ought to have, that they are entitled to know how well the program is being carried out, and that they have a right to suggest improvements. If we are to get full public support for any forward looking program, we must acquaint all of the people of the community with their schools and what they teach. A good public relations program is frequently the stepping stone to educational progress. However good a school may be *per se*, it cannot operate without the confidence of the public.

Citizen participation further assumes that there are in every community lay people who are outstanding in some particular field of knowledge and who are willing to volunteer their services in improving the school. Every good citizen wishes to perform public services. Here is a golden opportunity for service and, at the same time, develop interests and support of the school program.

Several cautions must be kept in mind in the establishment and use of citizens committees. *First*, these committees must have the full approval of the board of education. *Second*, there must be active participation by the board of education on these committees. *Third*, the committees should be selected by the board or by the staff. *Fourth*, care must be taken in the selection of the committee to see that there is representative participation and that this is not the voice of a pressure group. *Fifth*, committees should be formed for a particular purpose and, once the purpose for which the committee was formed has ceased, the committee should be dissolved. *Sixth*, no attempt should be made to use these committees to rubber stamp decisions previously reached by the board or administration.

The use of such people without usurping prerogatives of the board or administration called for great skill in providing leadership and, finally, there must be maintained a distinction between those jobs which are strictly professional and those where lay people may assist.

In my opinion the committees have worked outstandingly well in Mountain Lakes. Perhaps a look at our program may be helpful. Our lay participation started out with a direct approach to a specific problem of expansion. It has grown since then and we see many more possibilities than we envisioned when the program began. Committees were appointed by the board in several areas.

Gerald F. Hopkins is Principal of the Mountain Lakes High School in Mountain Lakes, New Jersey.

PLAN + ORGANIZATION + EXECUTION

Organization

Mt. Lakes
Bd. of Ed.

Steering Com.
Bd. Members—3

Educational Standards	Space Require- ment	Building Design & Material	Operating Cost & Finance	Building Schemes	Public Relations
Bd.—1	Bd.—1	Bd.—1	Bd.—1	Bd.—1	Bd.—1
Cit.—9	Cit.—7	Cit.—7	Cit.—9	Cit.—9	Cit.—8

Each organization in town was asked to send any suggestions for lay participation to the board. The committees were selected by the board because of a particular aptitude or interest of the nominee. All people who were asked to serve had a very definite contribution to make. Each committee member became a campaigner for the schools and an interpreter of our program. The Educational Standards report has become the springboard for a faculty study of curriculum and practices. To give you some idea of the scope of this—the first and most important committee—let us look at the areas covered in its report: Educational Standards as Related to the Nature of the Community, and to the Needs and Desires of its Students; Follow-Up of Graduates; Middle States Association Evaluation; Community Questionnaire, Evaluation of the School; Elementary and High-School Curriculum; Educating the Gifted Student; Educating the Slow Student; Guidance; Physical Education; a Conclusion; State Requirements and Community Resources.

Each other committee reported in similar detail and with the same excellent results. This was just the beginning. Lay participation by other groups came naturally when people knew we were interested in their opinions and their judgments of our school. As a result, the Mountain Lakes League of Women Voters undertook a study of our system and will print shortly a brochure entitled *Know Your Schools*. I believe this is the first time such a comprehensive study of the schools has been undertaken by the League in New Jersey. The College Club is acting now to provide us with a list of people who are experts in a particular field and would be happy to lecture to our classes, speak in our assemblies, or provide us with equipment or materials in a given field. The Garden Club has offered to provide us with advice and materials and any other assistance in landscaping the grounds for our new school.

Incidentally, the net result of the whole enterprise was to convince the public of the need for a new 600 pupil \$1,600,000 school. This was done with a vote of 2-1/2 to 1. Other committees are now being set up by the board and still more are visioned in the near future. Volunteers have stepped forth to help us with time, talent, and equipment. We are exploring the establishment of a cooperative program with industry so that students can become research assistants in nearby laboratories. We have used citizen committees on salaries. We see a bright picture in the future in using lay people to supplement the work of the board and the administration. Further, the board has incorporated in its own policy statement the intention of using lay committees whenever needs arise and whenever there are people who have competencies in those areas.

Summary of the presentation made by HOWARD G. SPALDING

Orientation of Transfer Students to Their New Schools and Communities

ACCORDING to the 1950 census, one family out of every five in this country changed its place of residence during the preceding year. This high degree of mobility causes many problems for our schools, especially in helping pupils who transfer from one school to another during the school year to make the necessary adjustments to school and community. This is a problem which has apparently received relatively little attention from high-school principals. A search of the *Educational Index* from 1944 through 1956 has not revealed a single article dealing specifically with the problems of pupils who transfer from one school to another during the school year. Some attention has been given to the problems of children of migrant workers, but the problems of typical transfer pupils received little if any attention in educational writings.

To find out how serious this problem is and what schools are doing to meet it, the writer sent a questionnaire to the principals of fifty selected high schools widely distributed geographically and according to type of school. Twenty of these principals were each sent ten pupil questionnaires to be administered to pupils who had transferred to their schools during the school year, and not more than a year earlier. Returns were received from forty-one principals and 156 pupils. The following summary will indicate the findings as to the nature of the problems encountered by these pupils:

According to principals' estimates, nine per cent of transfer pupils find transfer from school to school extremely difficult and need much help in making the change. Twenty-six per cent experience some difficulty and sixty-five per cent find the change easy and take it in stride.

Howard G. Spalding is Principal of the A. B. Davis High School in Mt. Vernon, New York.

In the opinion of pupils, about eight per cent found the transfer very difficult and would not want to repeat the experience. Thirty-one per cent found the change somewhat difficult; thirty-one per cent found their problems to be minor in nature; and thirty per cent found no problems and were glad they had made a change. According to the pupils' reports, seventy-two per cent found they required a month or less to become adjusted to their new school. About eight percent of the pupils reported that they still had not adjusted to their new school at the time of their report.

It is generally assumed that pupils' marks suffer when they change schools. This assumption was not borne out by the findings of this report. Twenty-eight per cent reported their grades were higher than in their previous school; twenty-eight per cent reported their marks were lower; and thirty-one per cent reported that their marks were about the same, with twelve per cent not reporting. Other responses indicated that difficulties of adjustment do not result primarily from the pupil's studies.

The general attitude of pupils towards their new schools was good. Seventy-six per cent reported they found their new schools to be friendly; thirteen per cent felt that the new schools were somewhat indifferent to their welfare; Less than one per cent felt the schools were unfriendly and ten per cent did not report on this point.

Just what problems are most difficult for pupils when they change from one school to another? Pupils and principals do not entirely agree on their answers to this question. From the viewpoint of the pupils, the most difficult problems are indicated in the following tabulation:

Leaving old friends and making new ones.....	45
Getting used to new school regulations and procedures.....	25
Adjusting to new types of teaching and different methods.....	17
Adjusting to a larger school.....	17
Getting used to the building and finding way around.....	14
Getting adjusted to new teachers.....	7
Overcoming language difficulty (foreign pupils).....	7
Getting records from former school.....	5
Adjusting to greater difficulty of studying.....	3
Adjusting to new standards.....	3
Catching up on work missed.....	3
Getting used to bigger classes.....	2
Making up required subjects not currently taken.....	2
Adjusting to differences in discipline and standards of conduct.....	2
Gaining the confidence of new teachers.....	2
Other problems showing one response each.....	9

In the opinion of principals, adjusting to the differences in program, graduation requirements, state mandated subjects, etc. is the most serious cause of difficulty in transfer. Lower academic standards of certain schools, difficulty of making friends in the new school, adjustment to a

school of different size, language difficulty of foreign pupils, midyear promotions placing pupils out of step, and adjustment to a school of different type such as vocational, parochial, *etc.* were the leading causes of difficulties in the opinion of principals, with a scattering of 16 other responses.

It is evident that considerable attention is being given by some schools to helping pupils to transfer successfully. Twenty-eight principals reported the use of a Big Brother, or Big Sister, who is assigned to help pupils in getting acquainted with their new school. Nineteen mentioned the help given by counselors in making out their programs and working out their problems of school adjustment. Eight indicated that counselors follow up to make sure the pupils are adjusting well.

Six reported that special social events were held for new pupils; five reported a welcome club or committee of the student council which helped new pupils to adjust to the school; five cited tests administered for placement purposes; four spoke of special help provided by teachers before and after school; four indicated that it was common practice for clubs to invite new pupils to join; four mentioned that pupils were given handbooks and floor plans of the building. In three instances the principal makes a practice of meeting new pupils and parents. Two schools make exceptions in programming, giving exemption in required subjects, *etc.* Two provided tutoring by pupils to help new arrivals make up their work.

The following services were each mentioned by one principal:

- Home-room teachers given information about new pupils.
- Parents required to come to school to help pupils register.
- Full day taken to register new pupils and introduce them to school.
- Pupil introduced to president of council and other leaders.
- Follow-up by director of guidance after transcript arrives.
- Foreign pupils assigned to a pupil who speaks their language.
- Club for pupils interested in travel and foreign relations invites foreign pupils to become members.
- Pupils admitted to activities without charge.
- Pupils sold activity tickets at reduced rates.
- Tutoring arranged at parents' expense when needed.
- Foreign pupils given work with reading consultant and speech therapist when needed before entering regular classes.
- An adviser visits home as soon as possible after new pupil arrives.
- Conferences arranged between teachers and parents.
- New pupil checks in with all personnel such as counselor, vice principal, librarian, *etc.*

A study of these responses will indicate many good practices being used by some schools. One is impressed, however, by the fact that none of these practices is universally used and that most of them are used by only a few of the schools reporting. This fact would seem to emphasize the need for developing a well-rounded program to promote pupil adjustment.

This program should emphasize helping pupils to become acquainted with teachers and other pupils so that they will feel they belong in their new school. Although most pupils will make the adjustment successfully within less than a month, the program should provide for identifying the pupils who are having serious problems of adjustment so that extra help can be given to these pupils. There should be more follow through by principals, teachers, and pupils working on this problem.

Another fact that was brought out by this study is that pupils find the adjustment to their new communities more difficult than adjustment to their new schools. It is evident that most communities provide little help in an organized way to assist young people in solving their problems of community adjustment. Pupils report that most such help was given by other pupils, neighbors, and relatives and apparently in a somewhat haphazard manner. Only seventeen pupils reported that they had received help in their problems of community adjustment from church people; no other organization was mentioned by more than one pupil as having been helpful. This finding suggests that the school, in helping transfer pupils to adjust, should make some provision for helping them with their problem of community adjustment. This could readily be done by counselors in their original interview and by follow-up conferences with pupils after they have been in the community for two or three weeks.

Experience shows that schools are doing a great deal to help incoming classes to adjust successfully to their new schools. Much less is being done for the pupils who enter school during the year. Attention to the problems of these pupils will pay good returns in improved pupil success and better school morale.

WHAT ARE DESIRABLE STANDARDS FOR ADMINISTERING ATHLETICS AND OTHER INTERSCHOOL ACTIVITIES?

(Arranged in co-operation with the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation)

CHAIRMAN: *Albert Willis*, Executive Secretary, Illinois High School Association, Chicago, Illinois

DISCUSSANTS:

John K. Archer, Principal, Malverne High School, Malverne, New York; Chairman, Joint Committee on Standards for Interscholastic Athletics, NASSP, AAHPER, and the National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations

John O. Fry, Principal, Hamilton High School, Hamilton, Ohio

Summary of the presentation made by HOWARD HOBSON

Standards in Athletics for Boys

IT IS a privilege to meet with the principals who are so interested and play such a prominent role in athletic programs for boys. I am sure of that interest because I have worked with many principals in arranging athletic contests and tournaments and, in earlier years, as a high-school coach. We also have a mutual and common ground because many of the principals, like myself, are members of the ex-coaches' fraternity.

Our deliberations are particularly appropriate at this time due to the President's Fitness for Youth Program. Through athletics, we have a tremendous opportunity and challenge to make valuable contributions toward this effort.

I am making two assumptions at the start: *first*, that we are speaking of athletics as competitive team games, played by accepted rules with a scoring system to determine a winner and loser, as differentiated from the many other definitions and interpretations of the word "athletics"; *second*, that those present are familiar with the publication, "*School Athletics*," published by the Educational Policies Commission, which lists the cardinal principals and other standards and recommendations for school athletic programs.

My purpose here shall be to review, examine, and discuss these published standards, along with a few of my own that I have added. In so doing, I shall divide the standards into two main groups; namely, those on which there is quite unanimous approval and acceptance, and those that still seem to be quite controversial.

Howard Hobson is Consultant in Physical Education and Boys and Men's Athletics, American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, Washington, D. C.

Group I, would include the following:

There should be:

1. *Adequate pre-season and post-season medical examinations and medical supervision with proper resultant classification and follow-up procedures.* I assume that all are in agreement in theory, if not in practice, with this standard, although I could tell you about the recent case of a major college basketball captain who almost lost his life because he played while in the early stages of tuberculosis, due to lack of adequate pre-season medical examination.
2. *Acceptance of athletics as an integral part of the entire educational program.*
3. *Competent well-prepared coaches in charge.*
4. *Opportunity for every qualified boy to play on a team.*
5. *Expansion of extramural programs to include more teams and more sports.*
6. *Wide participation in an intramural program which will include a large number of sports with carry over values.*
7. *Adequate play areas and facilities to carry out an adequate extramural and intramural program.*
8. *Adequate equipment and other health safeguards.*
9. *Required adequate training and conditioning of the participants prior to competition.* This standard is particularly important on the intramural level where it is often neglected.
10. *An adequate insurance program to cover injuries.*
11. *Published policies, standards, and goals of the athletic program, for the enlightenment of students, faculty, parents, alumni, and the gentlemen of the press, radio, and television.*

I think all parties concerned would agree on these standards, and we need say no more about them, except to increase our efforts to bring them about.

The second set of standards are controversial because either a majority or a large percentage are not conforming, and different opinions are frequently stated regarding them. In my opinion they need careful review, study, and some revision.

1. *The coach shall teach physical education and be certificated to do so.* A recent survey¹ indicates that less than one half of the high-school coaches in the country teach physical education, and about one third are not certificated to do so. Further preliminary surveys indicate that many coaches prefer to have other assignments, such as teaching academic subjects, and many administrators prefer that policy. The pendulum actually appears to be swinging away from the coach as a physical education teacher. First, I believe the coach should know his subject thoroughly, and be an educator. I believe this problem means a review of the professional curriculum of the coach in our teacher-training institutions. His work is so unique and specialized that he will need certain courses in the related field of physical education, as well as in the general area of education, and he will further need other selected courses pertinent to the coaching profession.

¹"Survey on the Certification of Coaches in the 48 States," by Dr. Donald Ades, Ft. Hayes, Kansas State College, April 1956.

2. *Athletics shall be financed from the tax dollar and through general funds.* This standard is most desirable. Still, there are many who believe that gate receipts must pay the way for the inter-school athletic program, and practice accordingly.

3. *Coaches' duties should be part of the teaching assignment without extra compensation.* Ideally yes, but recent surveys show that most coaches receive extra pay for coaching duties. We must review the coaches' teaching load and provide reasonable salary for the services required.

4. *Emphasis on winning shall be minimized.* We constantly hear complaints that the first varsity team overshadows the rest of the program. We must keep in mind two important items here: first, it should be part of the purpose of education to develop leaders, and boys competing in sports should have the opportunity to excel to the very highest degree possible. Second, we should develop a high degree of competitive qualities in the individual along with the will and desire to win. If these qualities can be achieved within the letter and the spirit of the rules and with good sportsmanship prevailing, they are among the very greatest values of athletics.

5. *Leagues, tournaments, bowl games, trips, and similar athletic participation, are of questionable value.* Some still recommend the elimination or deemphasis of such participation. These experiences can be extremely educational and provide additional incentive at the top level which will increase interest on the lower levels. Proper organization, supervision, limits and control of these events are the important considerations.

6. *Junior high-school and elementary-school athletic participation shall be limited to informal play days and similar functions.* The recommendation frowns on inter-school leagues or contests. A small but recent survey of city directors shows that 29 out of 31 have junior high-school inter-school games and at least one third of them include tackle football. The answer lies with proper supervision, organization, and equipment. If boys of pre-teen age are not permitted to have teams in their schools, with a reasonable amount of competition, they will play on teams not sponsored by the schools and where adequate supervision and control may be lacking.

Now in addition to the standards mentioned, I should like to raise several further questions for your consideration.

1. *Shall schools be concerned with outside athletic participation?* I have reference particularly to "Biddy" basketball, "Midget" football, "Little League" baseball, and similar activities. These leagues are growing rapidly and now include several million players. We have noted that the recommendation opposing team competition on the pre-teen age level seems very controversial. Schools might lend their efforts to these activities and give them the leadership, supervision, and controls needed. Coaches might be employed on a 12-month basis, jointly with the community, to handle such assignments.

2. *What can schools do about amateurism?* Our antiquated amateur code has much to do with standards and needs careful review and revision. The present rules prevent many from participating in normal community programs and deprive us of many teachers and coaches, sorely needed to carry out our school and community programs.

3. *Can schools control the recruiting of high-school athletes by the colleges?* Recruiting may have mutual values and *can* be highly desirable, but many unfortunate practices prevail. Free tickets to college games for players, coaches, and even principals are common. Entertainment or payment of coaches for scouting high-school material, interference with high-school students' schedules, free trips, bonuses, and family presents are a few devices used. We need to state our ground rules. The high schools must assume the major responsibility as it is the high-school student who is being recruited.

4. *How are school athletics related to the Youth Fitness Program?* I was privileged to attend the conference at Annapolis and have attended some of the conferences on fitness since that time. Many of us have been extremely concerned because of the emphasis toward such tests as Kraus Weber, mass exercises and calisthenics, so-called body-building and similar activities to achieve fitness—and a lack of emphasis on team games. I am sure that I would not need to convince anyone here that competitive athletics, properly organized and supervised, are one of the very best media for developing physical fitness and total fitness. We hear much lately about the great fitness programs in countries like Russia, but we do not want the kind of fitness they have in Russia. Formal response to command exercise may develop the type of fitness *they* want, but our needs are different. Team games best develop the leadership, competition, cooperation, and other qualities necessary to our *democratic* way of life.

In closing I would like to say a word about the principal-coach relationship. Part of my new position in developing a new athletic division for AAHPER is to contact the coaches of the country, alert them to their professional responsibilities, and try to bring the fields of athletics and the rest of education closer together.

There are probably 100,000 coaches in the country and they are organized into hundreds of coaches' associations representing various sports. I have attended many of their meetings. They discuss techniques of the game, rules interpretations, and similar topics, but the agenda seldom includes the standards we have mentioned here. Administrators should give leadership and direction to coaches and to coaches' organizations resulting in a cooperative effort if standards and professional growth are to be attained.

Summary of the presentation made by RACHEL E. BRYANT

Standards in Athletics for Girls

THE word "sports" has a broader meaning than the word "athletics." In addition to including strong vigorous activities, it also includes in its meaning those activities which are pursued for enjoyment or recreation. Perhaps in the meaning of these two words we have the key difference in the fundamental purposes of the boys and girls programs.

Strength and vigor are given greater emphasis in boys programs because they are considered essential qualities of manliness. In the girls program, skill, agility, gracefulness, and poise are objectives of significance. Strength and vigor are considered of lesser importance. If the activity gives great stress to the development of strength, the activity is considered unfeminine.

Girls mature at an earlier chronological age than boys. After puberty their needs and interests change to a much greater degree than do those of boys. There is a waning of interest in team sports and an upswing of interest in individual and dual sports. This should be recognized and proper adjustment made for it in planning the sports program for secondary-school girls.

The vigorous team sports have an important function in the girls sports program, but the period in which they play an important role in girls lives is considerably shorter than it is for boys. Girls interests in individual and dual sports carry over a much longer period and have important implications for participation in family and community recreation in our society faced with increased leisure time.

There is no evidence that vigorous sports competition is physically harmful for girls. Neither is there evidence to support the commonly held belief that girls are emotionally unstable and, for this reason, should not participate in highly organized competitive events.

The purpose of a program of sports for girls is to provide a wide variety of educational and recreational experiences which will meet their needs and interests in the light of their stages of growth and development. The welfare of the girl participants should be given primary consideration in the development of standards governing the sports program. Good mental hygiene is an important factor in welfare. The secondary-school girl's role as a girl, and future role as a woman, in our culture is also an important factor to consider in her welfare. Social mores affect girls programs much more than they do the boys.

Rachel E. Bryant is a Consultant in Physical Education and Girls and Women's Sports in the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, Washington, D. C.

Girls should not be exploited. Neither should they be neglected in the total school sports program. There should be adequate provision for qualified leadership, indoor and outdoor facilities, and finances.

Unfortunately, there are not enough qualified women physical education teachers to direct the sports program for girls in all schools. A well-qualified man teacher is to be preferred to an unqualified woman. In cases where men are going to direct programs for girls, there should be provision for pre-service or in-service education. There must be provisions also for a woman teacher or matron to supervise the locker and shower rooms and a woman teacher to be present at practices, games, and on trips.

In 1953, a Joint Committee of the NASSP, the AAHPER, and the NFSHSAA developed a statement of "Standards for Girls Sports in Secondary Schools." This statement is printed in the April 1954 issue of *THE BULLETIN* of the NASSP as presented by Chairman John K. Archer. As set forth in that statement, standards or policies for girls sports should be developed so that participants are assured: (1) a thorough medical examination, (2) a safe wholesome environment, (3) safeguards for protection of health and welfare of the players, (4) choice of both individual and team sports which are acceptable for girls in our society, (5) values and practices which are educationally sound, and (6) a high quality of leadership.

Summary of the presentation made by OTTO HUGHES

Other Interschool Activities

DURING the past decade, the activity program in the secondary schools of America has grown to major proportions. The high school of an early day had a more formal intellectual type of activity—the drama club, the debating society, and the literary club.

With the advent of the student council and concurrently the introduction of a wide range of pupil activities, the scope and function of an activity program as a part of the total school program changed. A review of the measuring stick of the *1950 Evaluative Criteria* as applied to the pupil activity program points to the effectiveness of the activities program in the most up-to-date schools in the country today.

The National Association of Secondary-School Principals appointed a committee to study activities as early as 1938. A report of the work of this committee appeared in the May issue of *THE BULLETIN* of that year. In 1939 a committee with Edgar Johnson as Chairman was appointed to make further study of the student activity program. This committee

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made its report in the December 1944 issue of *THE BULLETIN*. Many articles have appeared in *THE BULLETIN* and elsewhere in professional literature dealing with student activities and the part they have played in the education of youth.

There is no more effective channel through which all American youth may be prepared to assume the full responsibilities of American citizenship than through a comprehensive program of school activities. Almost without exception, the small percentage of youth of high-school age who become in one way or another involved with the law are boys and girls who have not participated actively in the extracurricular programs of the school in which they are enrolled. Learning to live constructively and co-operatively, practicing fair play, and developing an appreciation of the ethical values of life are provided through participation in the activity program.

There are, on the other hand, certain problems, resulting from the rapid development of an ever-expanding extracurricular activity program, which still perplex those charged with the responsibilities of its management and supervision. One of the most perplexing problems underlying this phase of the extracurricular program is that of the desire upon the part of individuals, firms, institutions, or organizations to attempt to use the schools as a medium through which they may further some special interest.

An essay contest sponsored by the American Medical Association on the subject of "The Advantages of the Private Practice of Medicine" serves as an example of one organization outside the school bringing pressure upon the high school to promote publicity concerning the special interests peculiar to an organization. However strongly the school administrator may or may not believe in the principle stated in the above topic, the fact remains that pupils are called upon to present only one phase of a highly controversial question without the stimulus to study the question on a fair and impartial basis.

Another illustration of an organization outside the school sponsoring a project that caused difficulty in some high schools is that of a promotional plan of Kiwanis International to organize Kiwanis Key Clubs among high schools throughout the country. The Key Club movement was originated in California by a number of high-school principals in an attempt to offset the undesirable influence of secret fraternities. Although this enterprise proved beneficial, some educators have asked if a strong, well-organized student council might not have accomplished even more far reaching and lasting results.

The Activities Committee of the Secondary Commission of Secondary Schools and Colleges received complaints concerning the embarrassing position in which principals of many member schools found themselves in relation to the organization of Key Clubs in their respective high schools. This NCA committee, under the chairmanship of Lowell B.

Fisher of Illinois in cooperation with Frank McCabe, Director of Kiwanis Key Clubs, developed a set of guiding principles dealing with the question of the introduction of Key Clubs in high schools.

After careful study and extended deliberation between the Activities Committee and Mr. McCabe, certain basic principles were agreed upon concerning the organization and control of Key Clubs in the North Central Area. As part of the agreement were the following points: (1) that the Key Club be under the complete control and supervision of the school administration, (2) that, before a Key Club is organized, certain facts be in evidence:

- a. A felt need for a Key Club within a school.
- b. An interest on the part of the student body to undertake the type of program.
- c. The full cooperation and approval of the school principal.
- d. The complete interest and ability of local Kiwanis Club to carry on this project.

Any deviation from the above agreement by a local Kiwanis Club is in direct violation of the statement of policy adopted by Kiwanis International through their Key Club director, Frank McCabe.

The state chairmen of the North Central Association reported at their annual meeting which was held in Bloomington, Indiana, October 1956, that principals of member secondary schools in several North Central states had reported problems arising as a result of high-school music organizations being invited to participate in contests, bowl games, and festivals.

The major problems that were causing the principals the greatest amount of trouble stemmed from that fact that all too often the band director would report to the principal that he, the director, had accepted an invitation through some regional, state, or national organization to attend a festival, bowl game, and the like. This obviously put the administrator in an untenable position. Frequently, the music men had arranged, with the support of the band parents, such things as transportation, leaving the principal no alternative other than to acquiesce to the prearranged planning.

What to do about pupils being absent from science, English, and mathematics was a problem, the solution of which rested only with the principal. Chaperones representing the official school staff, means of transportation, and the expense involved, especially since it involved travel from Michigan to Miami or from Ohio to St. Louis, were also problems with which the principal had to deal.

These and other questions could not be settled on a local school basis, especially for schools that were members of such an accrediting agency as the North Central Association. Since the Music Educators National Conference had sponsored a music festival in St. Louis, and since some North Central schools had been represented, while others had been denied the opportunity, the writer was authorized by the North Central chairmen to

contact the executive secretary of the MENC with a view to arriving at some feasible solution to the problems arising out of participation by music groups in bowl games, festivals, and the like.

Since so much misunderstanding and some false information have resulted from the St. Louis Music Festival, and is currently being engendered through invitations pending to bowl games, a cherry blossom festival, and the inaugural parade in Washington, D. C., an appeal has gone out to the NCA state chairmen to withhold drastic action until such time as a set of guiding principles worked out between the Activities Committee of the NCA and the MENC may be made acceptable to the majority of the parties concerned. It is hoped that by the time this article appears in print that this workable agreement will have been reached.

HOW CAN THE SCHOOL BEST PROVIDE FOR THE SLOW LEARNER?

CHAIRMAN: *W. I. Stevenson*, Principal, Milby High School, Houston, Texas

DISCUSSANTS:

E. R. Schwinger, Principal, Mount Pleasant High School, Wilmington, Delaware

J. W. Elwell, Principal, Wilson Junior High School, Hamilton, Ohio

Summary of the presentation made by CHARLES C. HOLT

IN ANY discussion of the slow learner, it is first of all important that we identify just who it is that we are considering. We are not discussing the mentally deficient or the feeble-minded. Rather, we are speaking of the boy or girl with the same ambitions, goals, and hopes as those of his faster learning classmate. The slow learner is the one whose IQ falls in the 70-90 range. He is the one who has and does constantly taste failure in the classroom and who drops out of school at the first opportunity. He must have more immediate goals and less abstract materials than the fast learner.

Those of us who are concerned with education in the schools are now hearing a great deal about programs for the gifted. None of us will deny the importance of this particular consideration. However, I submit that programs for the slow learner are also our responsibility.

Charles C. Holt is Administrator-on-Leave from Proviso Township High School in Maywood, Illinois.

There are, of course, different techniques and methods of providing for the slow learner. It is incumbent upon us as teachers to develop programs in our schools that will offer hope and opportunity to these youngsters. Some considerations in these programs are:

1. A prime essential in working with the slow learner is simplification of materials and methods both in terms of abilities and interests. We need to collect a library of books at different reading levels and interest levels based on age.

2. Special groupings are essential for the low-ability students. This can be done by subgrouping within classes, remedial-type classes, or a special curriculum for those leaving school and going on to the labor market at sixteen or seventeen years of age.

3. Tailored programs are important for the slow learner who remains with us. Judicious choice of courses, vocational guidance, and supervised work experience are all a part of individual programs.

4. Materials for teachers should be collected, such as visual aids, references, etc. Faculty meetings and workshops can be utilized to familiarize teachers with these materials and to encourage them to make curricular adaptations for these students. This serves the same purpose for these students as enrichment does for the gifted.

It is significant that we in Illinois, for example, will, in all probability, have approximately fifteen per cent of our students in the low-ability group and five per cent in the gifted range.¹ We cannot ignore either group. In these days of talent searches, we must keep in mind that these young Americans of low ability will be valuable members of our society as voters, housewives, and parents.

¹Study Group on School Populations, Allerton House Conference on Education in Illinois, 1956.

Summary of the presentation made by OWEN M. HENSON

THE slow learner can be identified as the child who does not have ability or potentiality to learn at the same rate as an average child. His IQ on a verbal intelligence test would range from 60 to 90.

It is quite natural for the slow learner to dislike school. He is further characterized by frequent absences, behavior problems, or sometimes a tendency to want to drop out of school. Usually, the slow-learner group constitutes about ten per cent of a student body on the secondary level. In a recent study of drop-outs in Topeka High School, it was discovered that more than twenty-five per cent of those who left school had an IQ of below 90. School for a slow learner can be a frustrating experience, leading to discouragement, apathy, and repeated failures.

There are those who say that, under our system of education, we are attempting the impossible when we try to educate the masses. On the other hand, there are those who come forth with panacean remedies

Owen M. Henson is Director of Instruction in the Topeka High School in Topeka, Kansas.

which need to be examined quite carefully. For example, Professor Bestor makes a rather illogical suggestion that all children should be grouped according to their mental age when doing school work and according to their chronological age when engaged in social activities.

Despite these two conflicting points of view, most educators are convinced that, under our democratic system of government, the public schools have the responsibility of providing learning opportunities for all American youth. In fact, the very existence of this nation depends to some extent on this basic assumption. If one accepts this philosophy, we cannot escape our responsibility of providing for the slow learner.

There are several steps which schools can take to provide for the slow learner. Probably the most important step is to employ well-trained, inspired, and understanding teachers. This kind of teacher will have a feeling of empathy toward the slow learner. He will accept the student and appreciate him as a person. He will be aware of his slightest progress and will provide learning experience that will enable such progress to be forthcoming and possible. What these students need is the development of personal confidence and self-acceptance. They cannot accomplish this task in an atmosphere of endless and repeated failure.

The teacher, of course, cannot work miracles without the help and cooperation of the school administrators. The administrators must be primarily concerned with such items as class size, teacher load, a varied and practical curriculum for the slow learner group, and a willingness to work with individual teachers and students in adjusting pupils to the curriculum.

Secondary education should be exploratory in nature, and especially is this true for those with less than average ability. The slow learners need to be carefully guided through their secondary-school program, discovering those areas of learning and skills which will be of practical use to them in their immediate environment as well as in their adult life.

An emphasis on the improvement of reading has developed into a movement which is quite beneficial to the slow learner. Reading is one of the areas in which the slow learner meets repeated failure. Schools all over the nation are holding workshops and meetings on the problem of reading. Teachers in all subjects are gradually becoming aware that reading is not necessarily a problem peculiar to the English teachers. We must be realistic, however, and realize that an emphasis on reading or even remedial reading cannot develop the slow learner into an average reader. The true slow learner does not have the inherent capacity to become adept at intellectual activities. We can, however, increase the breadth of his reading by exposing him to and helping him with materials on his level of instruction. The practical necessity of reading descends upon everyone whether he is of high or low intelligence. The slow learner needs reading skills in order to exist in our modern society.

He has to read directions, application forms for jobs, and newspapers if he hopes to lead a normal life. We are, therefore, failing as educators if we do not at least attempt to include in our school programs the reading needs of the slow learner. We can no longer be satisfied with the easy procedure of placing a comprehensive and difficult text in the hands of every student and expecting him to absorb it. We must examine his reading capabilities and adjust our materials and assignments accordingly.

Another procedure in teaching method which has proved most helpful to the slow learner is the problem approach. This procedure invites an increased amount of teacher-pupil planning which, if handled skillfully, makes the student more closely related to the problem to be solved. The slow learner especially needs to be aware of the practical necessity of approaching any new area of study or he will reject it as another subject in which to fail.

Teachers who are skillful with the problem approach have been most successful with grouping within the class. Students may be grouped according to their abilities, their interests, or by arbitrary assignment by the teacher. In any event, the teacher has a real opportunity to capitalize on any special abilities that the slow learner might have. The slower students also seem to work and discuss much more effectively in smaller groups. Whenever the slow learner can be encouraged to talk and discuss with other students, his prestige and self-confidence is tremendously increased. Continuous failure, on the other hand, tends to discourage his active participation in classroom work.

In summary, it can be stated that the public schools do have the responsibility of training and teaching educable American youth. This does, of course, include the slow learners because this group can be educated to become worthy citizens in our society. We cannot rely completely upon the old solution of guiding these students into vocational areas of our curriculum, although this is part of the answer since high school for this group is usually terminal. We must also work with them in the academic areas of the curriculum, such as the language arts, social studies, science, and math. These students, if they are to be worthy citizens, must be able to communicate with society through reading, listening, speaking, and writing. They must have some understanding of certain arithmetic skills and scientific knowledge about their environment. And last, but not least, they must have an appreciation and understanding of our democratic way of life in order to be useful members of society.

WHAT PRACTICES IN SCHOOL DISCIPLINE DEVELOP BETTER STUDENT-TEACHER RELATIONSHIPS?

CHAIRMAN: *Robert N. Bush*, Professor of Education, Stanford University, Stanford, California

DISCUSSANTS:

R. V. Lybeck, Principal, Independence Senior High School, Independence, Iowa

Charles Secoy, Principal, Troy High School, Troy, Ohio

Brother D. Luke, E.S.C., Principal, St. John's College High School, Washington, D. C.

Summary of the presentation made by **WILLIAM M. KULSTAD**

PERHAPS more than any other phase of school administration, the problems of discipline find their way into the discussions of principals when they meet either formally or informally. This is perhaps natural since a large proportion of the principal's time is spent in dealing with disciplinary problems of a minor or major nature. That discipline is a very important phase of administration is further evidenced by the great many treatments of all phases of it by top-flight educators over the past fifteen to twenty years. Some of the most noteworthy writings are: "Discipline for Today's Children and Youth," by George V. Sheviakov and Fritz Redl in 1944; "Successful School Discipline," edited by J. Weston Walsh in 1955; "High School Discipline in American Society," by Peter F. Oliva, published in the *NASSP BULLETIN* in January 1956. Nearly all professional educational books and magazines also contain information and help on this subject. Last year at our National Convention in Chicago, this same topic was discussed by Walter F. Snyder, Principal of South Charleston High School, and Henry C. Gregory, Principal of Western Junior High School, Bethesda, Maryland. Summaries of these discussions appear in the April 1956 issue of the *NASSP BULLETIN*. For a complete treatment of the subject, you are referred to the aforementioned specific references. You will find them worth-while and helpful.

What is it, we all ask, that makes for an adequate educational program in any school which will insure the proper outcomes of the educative process? It seems to me that there are five basic factors by which a school can measure its success in fulfilling its educational function. *First*, in order to do an adequate job there must be an adequate school plant with necessary appropriate facilities to meet the educational needs. *Secondly*, the school must have a child-centered and adequate curriculum to meet

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the needs of the students. *Third*, any school must have a professionally minded and professionally trained staff adequate to cover all phases of the educational process. *Fourth*, if we are to do the job cut out for us, good attendance is a pre-requisite, for, after all, we haven't a chance to teach students if they are not in attendance. *Fifth*, and last, no one can teach unless good order is maintained in the classroom. With these five conditions met satisfactorily, we are in a position to do the educational job that is ours.

This fifth requisite, good order, implies appropriate and satisfactory management in the classroom by the teacher. Class management broadly interpreted to most people means discipline. Discipline of necessity means student-teacher relationships. The question under discussion, "What Practices in School Discipline Develop Better Student-Teacher Relationships," calls for specific methods or techniques which result in better student-teacher relationships.

As classroom teachers, I am sure you have all experimented with various techniques of classroom management. By trial and error, I am sure you have modified practices until acceptable ones which gave the desired results were found. Tried and true procedures that work are retained while those that don't work are modified or discarded. Increasingly during recent years we have become more democratic in our approach to discipline. Authoritarian techniques do not provide desired outcomes in the process of "teaching and learning acceptable behavior." We like to think that discipline is something that can be learned so that students will have the ability to "self-discipline" in their formative years that they can be worthy citizens as adults no longer under the supervision and guidance of the home, church, and the school.

An excellent source of answers to the question under discussion can be found by asking your staff members: "Have you tried it?" "Try it." You probably will come up with comparable results as I did when I asked the question in preparation for this talk. Even though staff members do not sign their names to their answers, it is interesting to note that they can be identified by their replies.

There is a certain commonality in the answers of teachers we consider to be the good, strong, dedicated, and professionally minded. They seem to agree that students need and want good discipline as a means of feeling secure in the classroom situation. They agree that good classroom procedure such as concise, reasonable assignments are a deterrent to poor discipline. Common sense in correcting or reprimanding students is mentioned as essential. One teacher mentions, "Speak softly, but carry a big stick." She continues further by adding, "It gives me strength to know the office will back me before the student." Most teachers agree that consistency is near the top in importance to develop better student-teacher relationship. Often mentioned is flow of information from administration to teachers to student regarding the need for and the why of

rules and regulations. Often mentioned is fair and equal treatment of all. Mean what you say—then keep your word, avoid threats, particularly those you can't or don't intend to carry out. Stress should be placed on the fact that with privileges goes equal responsibility. Don't point out a student's misdemeanors or shortcomings publicly. Consistent friendliness and courtesy on the part of the teacher without familiarity is often mentioned as a deterrent to poor discipline. Being generous with praise whenever possible is a potent force for dealing with the smart alec or show-off if used wisely. It is pointed out by a veteran teacher that students become disgusted with a teacher who permits breaches of discipline from one or two students in a class when, obviously, nothing could be accomplished if very many were guilty of those or other misdemeanors. What she is saying is that scrupulous fairness is absolutely essential if a teacher is to maintain desirable student-teacher relationships with his pupils, including the offenders against discipline. One man states that a good teacher senses the need for discipline, then removes the cause before any discipline is required. My dean of boys states, "The principal must back up the teacher even when the teacher is wrong. If the teacher needs correcting, do so privately afterwards." Another quote, "Executive camaraderie may make a teacher popular momentarily, but, when the time comes to exert authority, he may find this authority seriously undermined."

As you will discover if you poll your faculty, there is no pat answer in the business of discipline. The teachers on your staff whom you consider to be good teachers have the answers to discipline the same as they have the answers to the instructional process. Largely speaking, good teachers are good disciplinarians and their student-teacher relationship is of a high level. On the other hand, poor teachers are most often poor disciplinarians. In discipline as in teaching, the old principle of "Nothing succeeds like success" is always true.

Summary of the presentation made by MARTHA R. FINKLER

SINCE World War II, I am sure that all principals have found it necessary to employ a large number of new teachers. Let us then begin with the new teacher. It is often the new teacher who has the most serious problem of discipline and who, through inexperience, may inadvertently contribute to creating serious disciplinary problems.

A teacher who is peaceful and harmonious within himself engenders these qualities in his classroom. The new teacher needs a feeling of security to be at ease. Sound practice indicates a good orientation program. The new teacher should enter the class the first day equipped

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with knowledge of basic routines of the school such as taking and recording attendance, an orderly method for hanging-up clothing, procedures for obtaining and distributing books, and meeting and dismissing a class. He should have a working understanding of such things as the bell schedule, the school program, and the lunch program. It is well, too, to plan with the teacher several clear-cut, rather formal beginning lessons in his subject area. Sometimes a few uniform lessons can be planned co-operatively by the teachers of a department.

A teacher buddy is a valuable and welcome help to the new teacher. This buddy is an experienced good teacher who is friendly, warm, and helpful without being officious. All schools have such teachers. They are our pride and strength.

Another valuable adjunct to the new teachers, and indeed to all teachers, is a teachers' handbook and a students' handbook. These are excellent, quick means for ready reference.

A supervisor can often create the first rapport between teacher and students by the way he introduces the teacher. Praise for both in the initial contact give dignity and importance to the first relationship. A real interest and an open door on the part of the supervisor will help the new teacher to avoid "incidents." It is easy to drop little admonitions such as "Keep your voice down," "Don't allow children to crowd around your desk," "Meet your class with a smile," "Drop in to see the guidance counselor about him."

Perhaps the most important single contribution the principal can make toward good pupil-teacher relationships is the climate of the school. One can tell almost as one enters a school building the tone of the school. If a dignified, orderly atmosphere of work pervades the building, it will reflect in the classrooms. If the students greet the principal with a cheery "Good morning," the chances are they will greet the teacher the same way. Time and use fuse these into what becomes the *mores* of the school, the generally accepted set of relationships. Into these standards already fixed, the new teacher can fit naturally without having to build his own new set of relationships. Thus the climate for teaching becomes a bulwark for the teacher.

THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM

An integral part of the setting of a good climate for teaching is a carefully worked out guidance program about which all teachers are well informed. Such a program involves the participation of all members of the school.

A good, workable program is the one prescribed for the junior high schools of New York City. This plan has two basic parts:

1. One classroom period a week and, at least, one assembly period a term are planned for group guidance for each class. It is recommended that the group guidance of each class be conducted by the teacher-counselor of the class.

2. For individual counseling, five periods a week are allotted for each 250 pupils on register. This time is apportioned among the teachers selected by the principal. In planning the assignments of teacher-counselors, one period, at least, each week is provided during which all members of the guidance committee are available for discussion of problems, techniques, and other matters.

This plan is carefully outlined in the *Manual of Procedures in Individual and Group Guidance in Junior High Schools* published by the Board of Education. In it are discussed such topics as (1) the essentials of a good guidance program; (2) guidance services; (3) group guidance with suggested grade topics, methods, and activities; (4) adaptation of the guidance program to the slow learner, and (5) use of educational and social agencies.

With a self-disciplined student body, the teacher's energies should be released for the teaching act. However, we know that this is often not the case. It is the exceptions to any rule or pattern that take a disproportionate amount of time and energy from teacher, guidance department, and supervisors. It is, of course, true that the number of exceptions is directly proportionate to the quality of the teaching. Since it is just as easy for the young teacher to perfect his weakness as to perfect his strengths, it is most important to assist vigorously in handling serious discipline cases, and, at the same time, to help the teacher to improve teaching techniques. There are even times when it may be wise to remove a pupil from class entirely. This should be done with dispatch, and so that other pupils in the class may see that a serious overt offense brings immediate action.

Those who elect to spend their lives teaching adolescents are dedicated, brave people. They are rich only in the satisfaction of important work well done. They deserve a good orientation program, consistent in-service training, the support of an orderly climate for teaching, and a good guidance program. If we give these helps to a well-qualified, emotionally mature corps of teachers, we can have every reason to expect a self-disciplined student body with sound, wholesome student-teacher relationships.

HOW CAN THE PROGRAM IN THE SMALL HIGH SCHOOL BE IMPROVED?

CHAIRMAN: *Edward W. Stefaniak*, Principal, Stowe High School, Stowe, Vermont

DISCUSSANTS:

Jack Broadhurst, Principal, Mineral High School, West Mineral, Kansas
Kieran L. Dooley, Director of Field Services, State Department of Public Instruction, Bismarck, North Dakota

Summary of the presentation made by JOHN S. CONWAY

THE definition of the term, "small school," must necessarily be established before the topic of improving the program of the small school can be developed very far. In this presentation, the term is applied to a school with fewer than 200 students. A school above this size is able to assign most teachers to areas in which they have specialized, and it is able to offer a program of studies which includes most of the common subjects. In the small school these administrative functions present problems.

Summaries of previous discussions on this topic have dealt with the curriculum, the schedule, administrative devices, and other phases of the topic. In this presentation an attempt will be made to point out at least two prerequisites to any effective improvement in the program. One is the stability of the administrative and teaching staff. When a school experiences a turnover of between 30 and 100 per cent each year, there will be little improvement regardless of the capabilities or efforts of any individual. To some extent this situation can be helped by improved salaries, provision for satisfactory housing, and other material compensations, but studies have shown that there are also other important considerations. Part of the answer lies in matching the applicant to the job in the original selection of personnel, and later in giving the staff support and making them feel that their efforts are appreciated. Smaller communities may have much to offer in the way of relaxed living, recreational opportunities, and a wholesome atmosphere that will appeal to many teachers.

The second prerequisite to improvement is that a sound philosophy of education be developed by the administrator and his staff and approved by the community. When such a philosophy is developed, it can be a yardstick against which all educational experiences can be measured. It would appear that any philosophy of education which is to be valid under modern conditions must stem from the assumption that any small school

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must be a comprehensive school, that it will have its share of low- and high-ability students, as well as many variations of interests and needs.

Anyone planning a program for the small school should take full advantage of the opportunities inherent in the low-enrollment school. These include small class sections which permit the instructor to give more individual attention to students. Possibilities for correlation of subject matter are greater in a small school, particularly where teachers are assigned to the same students for two or more classes. The greater familiarity with the students and their home backgrounds provides a wonderful basis for a guidance program, although it is a mistake to assume that this informal acquaintance constitutes or replaces a planned program. While the small community may have a more limited range of local resources, there may be greater cooperation in making them available to enrich the educational program.

There are at the same time certain intrinsic disadvantages in a small school which should be avoided or minimized in any change of program. Teachers may be assigned to areas for which they have inadequate preparation. In such cases the instructors must be encouraged to supplement their training by summer or extension-course work, or through independent efforts. Equipment and library references may be restricted by budget limitations. Schools should explore all possibilities for pooling resources. Frequently there are provisions from state or other sources for library books, audio-visual aids, and other resources that cannot be supplied by the local district. In our state, there is at least one county administrative unit that furnishes many items of the more expensive equipment to its member schools on a revolving basis; however, it is necessary for schools to make careful plans in order to get maximum use of these articles when their turn comes.

One of the pitfalls that the small school is sometimes subject to is attempting to include everything that the large school provides at the cost of doing things well. This is particularly true in the field of extraclass activities, where the program sometimes becomes overbalanced for both advisers and students at the expense of the instructional program. A more limited program which is successfully operated would contribute more to the aims of the school than a diffused program that is too heavy to do anything well.

Summary of the presentation made by IVAN BUTTERWORTH

A DEFINITION of what is meant by a small high school has to be decided upon before this discussion can begin. In 1941 Langfitt, Cyr, and Newsom stated in their book, *A Small High School at Work*, that the dividing line between a small high school and a large one was somewhere

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between 150 and 300 pupils; they more or less accepted any enrollment under 300 as applying. However, due to the increase in pupil population and consolidations in recent years, probably schools with enrollments of less than 500 are now considered in the small school category.

There are many assets we are aware of that would contribute to the improvement of the small high school. Many experts would go so far as to eliminate it through consolidation and feel that this is the best solution to its problems. Yet, there is much that is good and desirable in the small high school of a reasonable size. It has many advantages that should not be thrown overboard because "the grass seems greener on the other side of the fence." One of the main areas in which the small high school has erred is in trying to imitate the large school, feeling that the large school was the only answer. Even with the number of needed improvements, and in spite of some of the ills that some small high schools possess, I would like to emphasize the main thesis in this discussion is that the program in the small high school can best be improved by doing a better job with what we already have. There are many evidences that the small school is doing a better job than the overly large one. In this quest of imitation of the larger high school, the lot of the small high school has been made difficult by some of the regulations of accreditation by the state departments of education and regional associations. In the past, too much emphasis has been placed on the quantitative aspects of the school rather than upon the qualitative. Especially in the qualitative areas the small school has some advantages over the large school and can compete on equal terms in such areas. While not overlooking some of the advantages pertaining to the quantitative needs in the small high school, certainly the challenge for the improvement of the small high school is better in the qualitative aspects.

While not implying that we should be content with the *status quo* of present conditions in the small high school we, nevertheless, want improvements, new ideas, and new developments. All schools should be concerned primarily with the making of good citizens so they can live in our democracy, with emphasis being placed upon the whole child and his needs. In trying to do this successfully, and to make the small high school what it should be, it would seem that a survey of the school community is imperative in order to ascertain what the students need in the school program to provide the economic, geographic, social, and personal training. The curriculum should be thereto adjusted. Probably one of the greatest complaints has been that its curriculum is somewhat stilted and rigid, leaning towards the college preparatory type, and it by no means fits the needs of most of its pupils. From such community surveys and from the democratic advantage of a desirable philosophy of education and the establishment of practical educational objectives some of the objections to the traditional school will be eliminated and, with the result, the programs and organizations of small schools can do a more functional job.

If there is one area in which the small high school has an opportunity of doing an outstanding job, surely it is in the area of guidance. Education is guidance. The small school offers great opportunity for intimate contacts between the pupil and teacher. Educational experts have emphasized that the teacher is the main key in the success of any guidance program. In the small high school, opportunities for guidance are greater where the class enrollments are small. With properly certificated and trained teachers, they can provide a better form of individualized instruction and guidance. The personal contacts between the faculty and students should challenge us to go home and re-evaluate our guidance programs to see if they are doing all they should. Good guidance services should increase the holding power of the school and thereby lessen the number of drop-outs. The small school should provide the possibility of a more democratic school through the proper student-faculty relationship which should enrich the citizenship training that leads to good citizens, the ultimate goal of all schools. In my own school, whose high-school enrollment is 250, every six weeks we have a combined faculty meeting where we discuss each pupil and the items of school citizenship we wish to emphasize. We comment on the pupil's growth or lack of it in these areas. We have been able to finance an adequate system of testing and aptitude guidance which has meant something to those students who wish assistance.

An individual folder for each pupil, who often starts in the first grade and continues through the twelfth, contains an abundance of information. Colleges and employers have found this information valuable; they have stated that we, as a small school, give a better picture of our students and have more personal pupil information than any of the larger schools in Virginia. There is a faculty feeling that guidance is the duty of each member and that each should contribute his or her share towards knowing our pupils, their families, and the community better, and make this pertinent information available to the pupils so they can make decisions. The small high school should individualize each student and see to it that he is not just a name. He should get personal attention and recognition. The real challenge is to improve our guidance services so that they will touch all areas of a student's life. Remember, probably one of the greatest opportunities for improving small schools would be through improved guidance services—personal, group, recreational, educational, and vocational. Often we have to wait many years to see the results of good guidance. We should not be too impatient of our guidance efforts provided they are in keeping with the needs of every individual pupil.

Other areas of guidance in which the small high school can improve are in curriculum and extracurricular activities. Unfortunately, most small high-school curricula have shown preference to the twenty per cent college preparatory group. Yet, in the small high school of four or five hundred, much can be done to broaden the curriculum and enrich it.

A school of this size can offer a fairly wide variety of courses which sometimes compares favorably to the large high school whose curriculum is often taken up with sections of the same courses. The challenge of the small high school is to do a good job in a smaller area and not to disperse its efforts over too wide a program.

Certain occupational and exploratory courses offer a challenge to small school administrators and enrichment has already been made in shop, industrial education, distributive education, agriculture, art, and home economics. The following are other methods whereby the curriculum of the small high school can be greatly enriched: (1) extension courses taken from recognized schools, (2) courses offered by certified correspondence schools in specified areas, (3) alternation of courses by years, (4) use of certain outstanding and qualified people in the community to provide instruction under specified conditions, (5) circuit teachers who teach in more than one school or county, (6) consolidation of one or more small schools that will make for larger enrollments, (7) use of certain community businesses to provide experience for students in distributive education, (8) teaching of two or more small classes at the same time by the teacher, and (9) elimination of the non-functional courses from the old curriculum.

With regard to enrichment materials and extracurricular activities, with the availability of films and materials from the state and regional libraries, the small high school has the possibility of matching the best instruction with needed audio-visual aids and equipment. The good, small school's extracurricular activities program is often more successful because it can use a more flexible schedule to provide the necessary time for activities than larger schools. Naturally, the smaller school will have fewer activities, but it should emphasize their quality by offering only those activities in which competent sponsorship is available.

The key to any successful school is primarily the competent teacher. Often in the small high school the two problems are the low teacher-pupil ratio and the high subject-teacher load. Undoubtedly, these are problems in the high school of 150 pupils and under, but, in schools of 300 to 500, these problems are alleviated to the point where teachers are often better off in the small high school than in larger ones. True, there is a salary differential, but there are compensations worth our recognition that come from personal contact with pupils and their families that is not available to those in larger schools where pupils are numbers or names. The challenge is to get favorable school climate in the school community so that adequate financial support will help the salary question and cause competent teachers to remain. In the small high school there is a greater probability of a good *esprit-de-corps*. Most schools are the shadow of one or more outstanding individuals and this is especially true of the small school. While the small school finds the teacher turn-

over a problem, there are some disguised blessings as a result since new members are coming and going who bring new ideas and offer a chance of brief, but more versatile, programs. Even though some of these ideas and contributions are transient, some serve their purpose and keep the small high school out of a rut.

One of the main challenges in improving the small school program lies with the principal. The old axiom, "As is the principal, so is the school," makes the assignment in a small school doubly important. It is up to us to dedicate ourselves to the idea that our programs can best be improved by our doing a better job with what we have. Our desire in the small high school is to strive for sufficient backing of our programs. There are few communities in America that have not felt the increase in the school population and have seen improved and properly used school plants. As principals, we need to recreate in our communities good morale for our schools and their improvement by the proper school publicity. Education never stands still. Its quality either recedes or improves. We must continue our attempt to create good community endorsement to secure the needed equipment, qualified teachers, and administrators.

Good administration and personnel will receive the respect of the community when we show that our schools are effective and when the citizens have a greater understanding of the ends they are expected to obtain. Often the best publicity agent of a school is a satisfied pupil. The small high school must see that its community knows its philosophy and objectives. While the small high school cannot afford individual school expert personnel such as supervisors and specialists that the larger high schools have, something can be done about this by having small schools in a given county or area join together to provide experts to work among them. Sometimes experts do a better job when their efforts are used thusly.

Although we have many irons in the fire and many responsibilities to see that the small high school functions well, let us put our hands to the plow and look forward to the possibilities we have rather than being frustrated by a lot of propaganda about what the small high school does not have. Truly, many of us in our small high schools have "acres of diamonds in our own back yard." Let us find them and, through wise polishing, we can make the small high school serve better its community and its pupils who often receive a better rounded development from the fact they were fortunate enough to have attended a well-planned and administered, small high school.

HOW CAN THE SCHOOL DEVELOP GOOD SCHOOL- COMMUNITY RELATIONS?

CHAIRMAN: *Donald W. Fowler*, Principal, Stratford High School, Stratford, Connecticut

DISCUSSANTS:

Violet K. Richards, Chairman, Division of Education, Dillard University, New Orleans, Louisiana

Michael J. Herk, Principal, Donora Senior High School, Donora, Pennsylvania

Summary of the presentation made by JAMES F. CONOVER

MAURICE STAPLEY declares, "Future welfare of public education depends on an enlightened public." Today the principal has an important role in interpreting the educational policies of the superintendent. Every principal has community responsibilities whereby he has opportunity to aid his school to understand the community better and, in turn, to aid the community to understand the school better. Through these opportunities he becomes acquainted with individuals and groups (both organized and informal) whose influences are effective in the community. He becomes aware of the public's thinking concerning school needs and problems, and consequently, should be better able to develop a sound public relations program. He is in an advantageous position to combat programs which may become harmful to the school.

Good school-community relations begin with good school educational programs which provide for the needs of all pupils as determined from the best information available concerning their needs. When the youngsters go home and say, in effect, "Mom, I had a good day at school today," and when graduates are successful in their endeavors, there is something right and good about the school's educational program. In such a climate an *esprit-de-corps* develops which influences the behavior of pupils and staff members and radiates friendliness. They are proud of their school and, by words and actions, they become ambassadors of good will. There is much evidence to support the contention that a community will react positively and constructively to such conditions.

There are many and varied means through which the school may be interpreted to the community. Pupils' sharing of their school experiences with their parents is one means whereby patrons interpret the school. Parents are vitally interested in their youngsters and are eager to learn about what is happening to them. It is obvious that effective interpretation depends upon effective communication.

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There are two general plans of communication which may be termed (a) one-way communication and (b) two-way communication. One-way communication includes: bulletins, brochures, news releases, radio and television presentations, school publications, demonstrations, exhibits, visiting days, co-curricular public performances (including athletic, dramatics, music, *etc.*), and reports to parents on pupil progress. Each of these has significance.

Two-way communication includes parent-teacher conferences, student-teacher-parent participation in committee work, lay citizens and staff members serving as resource people, home visits, PTA and other school-related adult programs including citizens advisory committees, and participation in informal and organized group affairs. Such interaction provides excellent opportunity for school and community to work and plan together. When understanding develops, usually moral and financial support follows.

An in-service training program, to develop skills and provide "know how" to make communication programs effective, should be the concern of every principal. Begin where you are and, by constant education, improve school-community relations. Teach all concerned the principle of desirable cooperation. Wise leadership seeks constantly to extend community interest through information, demonstrations, participation, and friendly contacts. Good school-community relations result, inevitably, in community recognition and appreciation.

Summary of the presentation made by CLARENCE A. FULMER

IT IS a truism that, in order to have good school-community relations, you must have a good school. Your faculty must think that they have a good school and that it is their school or our school and not the principal's school. Most important of all, the pupils in the school must think that their school is a good school; preferably, they should think that their school is the best school in the world. The best public relations agent is still the well-taught student, proud of his own accomplishments and enthusiastic about his teachers, his school, his teams, and his clubs.

Public relations is a much broader term than public information, but the public does need continual information about their schools. Grinnell says that parents want to know who is in the school and what is going on in it; and, as Harold Hand's opinion survey showed, parents are interested in studies and class activities as well as in extraclass activities.

Grinnell further says that the public should be informed about teachers and their working conditions, their every-day lives, their achievements,

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their long and strenuous working day, and their modest salaries. Teachers do need freedom from pressures and can only be secure and effective when they have academic freedom. Again quoting Grinnell—good public information programs are:

1. Planned
2. Continuous
3. Intrinsic and Inclusive
4. Honest
5. Positive and Constructive
6. Understandable
7. Dynamic and interesting
8. Well balanced
9. Cooperative Effort of School and Community
10. Timely
11. Designed to reach everyone in the community
12. Use all media available
13. Flexible

In Wilmington we do try to practice these principles. We have a Coordinator of Public Relations, a Committee on Public Relations policies, an official reporter in every school. We also have a Public Relations Workshop to train school representatives in good public relations techniques. We do try to use all media—we have a regular TV program, *Schools in Action*; an interpretative monthly, *Our Schools*; a house organ for the school staff, *The Staff Reporter*; several regular radio programs weekly, and a speaker's bureau to furnish speakers to Service Clubs, Women's Groups, Church Groups, etc. In all of these activities we strive to give an "honest" presentation; for that reason, most TV and radio programs are unrehearsed.

The Superintendent of Schools, his Administrative Assistant, and the Coordinator of Public Relations hold press conferences with representatives of the press and explain basic policies, proposed changes, etc. to give reporters background for interpreting school news. Approximately 1,000 newspaper stories about the schools appear in our two local newspapers each year. Our emphasis is always on interpretation, not just information.

Using as an example the school that I know best, the Wilmington High School—we have a faculty member who has a free period each day to use for school publicity. She writes or alerts reporters on feature stories and sends in reams of information from which newspaper editors or radio news commentators can pick up or follow-up on materials.

In our locally produced booklet, *The Principal Surveys His Job* we list three principal functions of a principal—(1) a community leader, (2) an executive, and (3) a professional leader. In his functions as a community leader, he must know his community, he must know community groups and be able to coordinate their programs with the school's program. If his school has industrial and business education programs, the principal must plan working relationships with employer and labor organizations,

occupational groups of various types, and community and business executives.

Among Wilmington High School's best public relations agencies are our cooperative training programs in which industry cooperates with us in the actual training of pupils on the job. Our cooperative program is over thirty years old. At present we have five coordinators who work half days in the school, and on the other half days, they supervise pupils on actual jobs and confer with their employers. This gives us daily contacts with a cross section of businessmen in the city, and they, in turn, can judge the efficiency of the school's program and make constructive criticisms and suggestions. In turn, pupils learn the requirements of an actual job and, incidentally, will earn close to a quarter million dollars this year.

To be a community leader the principal must actually lead in activities entirely outside of his school. He must know the personnel and the work of the social agencies in his area. If his patrons do not come to the school, he must go out and meet them where they are—in the clubs, their church groups, and in their places of business.

It is helpful for the principal to be a good public speaker. He need not always speak about educational problems; in fact, the techniques used by the spokesmen for big industry, who only very incidentally bring in their propaganda, are usually more effective than the direct approach.

Quoting again from *The Principal Surveys His Job*—"The principal must rely on parents and other adults for immediate helpful public relations for the school and even for himself. Parents should be led to have confidence in his understanding of their problems and his willingness to help solve them. With such an attitude they will more readily seek and follow his advice. In these relationships he must be able to deal with the influential parent who sometimes demands special privileges, the humble underprivileged parent, and the loudly complaining parent. Through effective leadership he will make all of these friends of the school."

The principal should try to have the key members of his staff involved in community activities and have them interpret the school program. The more members of the staff feel that they are expected to interpret the school program and are given opportunities to do so, the less they will pass on critical comments around the bridge table, at the beauty shop or in the locker room.

When the pupils, the faculty members and the public have confidence in the school and in its administration then, by using all the techniques listed by Grinnell, a school can have truly good school-community relations.

WHAT SIGNIFICANT IMPROVEMENTS HAVE BEEN MADE IN ORGANIZING AND ADMINISTERING THE SIX-YEAR HIGH SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *William W. Rodgers*, Principal, Exeter High School, New Hampshire

DISCUSSANTS:

Arthur B. Shedd, Principal, Fox Lane School, Mt. Kisko, New York

Armin E. Soph, Principal, Ingalls Junior-Senior High School, Atchison, Kansas

Summary of the presentation made by DELMER H. BATTRICK

INFORMATION on the six-year high school is limited. Historically, this type of high-school organization was the result of growing dissatisfaction with the traditional 8-4 plan, by representatives of colleges and universities as early as 1900. By 1952, the six-year high school had shown the most rapid growth of any other type of organization in secondary education, enrolling over 3 million pupils or 39.7 per cent of the total high-school population. "At the present rate of increase there is reason to believe that in a few years the number of six year high schools in the U. S. will exceed all other types of high schools combined."¹

Present trends in the organization of a six-year high school show that "new schools in rural areas and new regional schools representing a combination of sparsely settled districts will tend to be six-year junior-senior high schools. New schools in urban and suburban centers of medium or high density population will tend to be separate three-year junior and separate three-year senior high schools."² This trend is evidenced in certain areas in Iowa. In Cedar Rapids, a fast growing city where two six-year high schools operated for many years, both have now become separate three-year junior and three-year senior high schools. Four junior high schools, utilizing the older buildings, and two new senior high schools. In Des Moines, the two six-year high schools, Lincoln and Roosevelt, will eventually become three-year senior high schools. The present building program in Des Moines includes two additional junior high schools which will house pupils in grades seven, eight, and nine from both Lincoln and Roosevelt. When these six-year high schools in Des

¹Wm. T. Gruhn and Harl R. Douglass. *The Modern Junior High School*. 1956 (2nd Edition). New York: Ronald Press Co.

²Wm. T. Gruhn and Ellsworth Tompkins. "What's the Best Combination?", November 1956, *NEA Journal*.

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Moines were built over thirty years ago, they were both on the extreme outskirts of the city and the six-year type of organization was both desirable and economical. Now urban expansion places these schools in densely populated areas where separate junior and senior high-school buildings will permit those in junior high school to fare better than they now do in the present six-year school.

In Polk County and in other counties in Iowa, especially where regional schools are bringing together the pupils of sparsely settled districts, the six-year high school is both practical and economical. The Polk County plan for the re-organization of school districts has set preferred minimum acceptable standards for the six-year high school—grades 7 to 12—as 40 to 50 students per grade or a total of 250 or more. "The six-year high school should be organized so the junior high-school of grades seven, eight, and nine are supervised and organized separately as much as possible from the senior high school of grades ten, eleven, and twelve. Many of the same facilities and instructors may have to be used in both junior and senior high-schools when they are this size. However, whenever possible, teachers should be employed and facilities should be established so as to be used in one or the other."³

Reorganization in the county is proceeding at a commendable rate. Two examples of six-year high schools that are organized according to the above plan are the Saydel and the North Polk Community. The Saydel six-year high school cares for the school population from seven school districts totalling 579 students (371 junior high, 208 senior high). The building is modern throughout, of cinderblock and brick construction, ideally located on a hilltop with spacious grounds. A junior high-school principal and a senior high-school principal administer the school, each with part-time teaching responsibilities. The program of the junior high-school, designed to meet the needs of early adolescents, operates separately and in a separate wing of the building from the senior high-school except for industrial arts, home economics, and music. While the school is only one-year old, already the need has arisen to move the junior high-school to a separate building. Next year, Saydel will be a three-year senior high school.

³Charles Grady. "An Analysis of Administrative Practices of Large Six-Year High Schools of the North Central Association of High Schools and Colleges," 1956, University of Oklahoma, Thesis for Dr. of Education degree. Oklahoma City: S. E. Jr.-Sr. High School, Charles Grady, Principal.

Arthur W. Kairott. "What Promising Improvements Are Occuring in Organizing and Administering the Six-Year School?", 1956, April, THE BULLETIN of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Volume 40, Number 219, Page 72.

Walter S. Monroe. *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*. 1950. New York: MacMillan and Co. (references on "High School Organization," pages 1165-1172.)

Polk County Board of Education. "Minimum Standards for the Reorganization of School Districts adopted by the Polk County Board of Education," 1956. Des Moines Iowa: Ralph Norris, County Superintendent, 105 County Court House.

Walter H. Gaumnitz and J. Dan Hull. "Junior High Versus the Traditional (8-4) High School Organization," 1954, March, THE BULLETIN of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Volume 38, Number 201. (Reprint.)

North Polk Community School, also a consolidation of several districts with a much lower enrollment of 154 students (88 in junior high, 66 in senior high), provides a good example of a six-year high school where economies can be effected in the assignment of administrative, supervisory, and teaching staffs and in the adjustment of class size and teaching load. Here the facilities of certain departments such as science, music, art, home economics, and industrial arts can be used by all grades. The principal has charge of both the junior and senior high-school sections of the school and also has some teaching responsibilities.

Summary of the presentation made by A. E. WRIGHT

MANY school systems have changed from the four-year to the six-year high school within the past fifteen years. In some instances, the seventh- and eighth-grade students were moved into the high-school building with little regard for meeting the real needs of these younger pupils. However, school administrators are building a six-year program with the idea in mind that all grades should have as nearly as possible equal opportunities for rich learning experiences in as many areas as enrollment and facilities permit with one integrated program of studies and activities rather than two schools operating under a single administration. Many of the six-year schools have enriched the curriculum by adding art, general music, instrumental music, industrial arts, home economics, junior business, physical education, and health and family relations.

Within the past few years, the block of time has been introduced into many of these schools. The time varies from two hours with one teacher (this seems to be the most popular length of time) to as much as four and one-half hours. Language arts and social studies is the most popular combination for the long period with science and mathematics being favored by many principals. The activities and home-room period are, in most instances, handled by the same teacher who has the pupils during the long period.

Another improvement in the six-year school is the reduction of the number of study hall periods per week. In some schools the seventh- and eighth-grade pupils have only three study hall periods per week, and some of these may be spent in the library. Some schools are using a five-period day with periods of an hour and fifteen minutes. Classes that formerly met five times per week meet only four times a week. This plan does away with study hall periods and uses directed study under the supervision of the teacher.

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Many of the six-year high schools are following some type of homogeneous grouping. The very slow, those with IQ's of from 50 to 75, are placed in small groups of from twelve to eighteen. In these small groups they can be given more individual instruction and may have opportunities for various handicrafts. Other schools are having remedial classes in reading and mathematics. Those pupils who have outstanding mental ability are encouraged to take exploratory courses in foreign languages, mathematics, and science. Thus, by proper grouping, most pupils are finding success in one or more areas, and school has become more vital and challenging to them.

Certainly guidance is receiving more attention than it formerly did, for the six-year school offers exceptional opportunities for an outstanding guidance program. There is evidence that the professional counselor, who has all of the responsibility for guidance, is on the way out in the more progressive systems. In his place a more guidance minded faculty is being developed through a committee on guidance with a chairman who may have some released time. This committee may collect materials on guidance, arrange programs for professional faculty meetings, have career programs or days, arrange for college days or nights, and provide assistance for each home-room teacher with the problems of her pupils.

Activities are being well-planned and organized for the various age groups. According to several studies, few schools permit inter-scholastic athletics other than basketball in the first two or three years of the six-year schools. However, intramurals are common in such activities as football, touch football, volleyball, tennis, and softball. Many educators believe that highly competitive games are not desirable for the thirteen- and fourteen-year olds, but that good intramural programs meet the interests and needs of these fast growing boys and girls.

There are other interesting activities for the students of the 6-6 school. Most schools have student councils. Some of the largest schools have two councils—one for the junior high-school group and another for the older group, but the single council is the most common organization. Clubs are organized according to the interests of the pupils and naturally fall into age groups. Many schools have social programs planned for various age levels. Most schools have only one newspaper and annual. All groups are invited to contribute to those publications, but the management and production is left to upper classmen. Four and five years of experience on the publication staff will make these students better leaders when they become juniors and seniors. A few schools report that they have a morning break similar to the coffee break. The pupils may get milk, fruit juice, or ice cream.

Another significant improvement in the six-year school is the plan of new buildings. During the great expansion of the secondary-school enrollment, new buildings have become necessary. Many of these buildings are now being planned to care for the younger pupils as well as the

older ones. One of the most popular plans is to have one wing for the junior grades and the other wing for the older pupils. The wings may be connected with service areas common to both groups. These may include the administrative offices, book store, clinics, library, and cafeteria. The music rooms, shops, and gymnasium are usually off to one side or in another building. Even though there are still improvements to be made, the six-year high school seems to be moving in the right direction.

WHAT EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM IS NEEDED IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *Lawson J. Cantrell*, Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Junior High Schools, Public Schools, Washington, D. C.

DISCUSSANTS:

Roy V. Maneval, Principal, Horace Mann Junior High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma

Frances A. Stephan, Principal, Robert E. Peary Junior High School, Los Angeles, California

Summary of the presentation made by DONALD W. LENTZ

THE educational program that is needed should include among other things:

1. Offerings planned to meet stated objectives of the junior high school.
2. Offerings that meet the needs of adolescent youth as a group and as individuals.
3. Offerings suited to the local community needs, but broad enough to prepare for the larger community of national and/or international scope.
4. Guidance for personal and sociological adjustment and for educational and vocational development.
5. A broad concept of the exploratory nature of the junior high school.

There is no implication that these are exclusive or independent—but rather that they are mutually interdependent, overlapping, and cumulative.

OBJECTIVES

Some of the basic principles upon which the junior high school was founded provide some initial clues. Retention of pupils, articulation, exploration, guidance—educational and vocational—, activity and social adjustment, and economy of time have been, and still are, among the reasons advanced for establishing and perpetuating the junior high school.

Donald W. Lentz is Principal of the Port Washington Junior High School in Port Washington, New York.

Assuming that grades seven to nine have some special interest in these factors, the first job of the administrator is to examine the offerings in terms of these objectives, or, if other objectives are included, to test the degree to which the school moves toward the desired goals. Too often, our schools remain a regrouping of some of the old elementary- and high-school grades. But, changing the locale, erecting a new building and calling it a junior high school does not necessarily make it one.

MEETING THE NEEDS OF ADOLESCENT YOUTH

A school is a junior high school to the extent to which its courses of study and administration meet the needs of adolescent youth. While there are many approaches to the consideration of *needs*, two complementary statements from different viewing point may help in planning a program in line with stated objectives. The *first* is by Herriot and others who reformulated "The Ten Imperative Needs of Youth" as developed by the NASSP into "The Imperative Needs of Junior High School Youth." The *second*, discussed by Alberty and popularized by Havighurst, is the "developmental needs concept." Under this theory every pupil has imposed upon him by his own biological nature and the society of which he is a part at various stages of his development a series of tasks which he must learn to perform.

Keeping in mind the broad factors, then, such as the basic objectives or reasons-for-being of the junior high school and such other matters that focus directly on the characteristics of the adolescent as "The Ten Imperative Needs of Junior High School Youth" and "The Developmental Tasks," specific offerings can then be planned.

SPECIFIC OFFERINGS

The nature and scope of specific offerings must vary because of the nature, resources, and philosophy in each community; but there are specific areas which, when interpreted in the light of these factors, can be basic to a program. Thus, the report of the National Conference on Junior High Schools, sponsored by the U. S. Office of Education in 1955, made these recommendations: "There is need to include a basic curriculum in language arts, social studies (history, geography, civics), science, health, mathematics, art, physical education, music, shop, and homemaking; opportunities for electives such as typing, speech, journalism, foreign languages, printing, and other experiences, varying with the needs of the students in the local school; and an activities program which involves the maximum number of pupils." This array of offerings, especially with the implications in the recommendations for electives and an "activity program," reminds one of the offerings in many of our present-day high schools, but the emphasis and philosophy must fit early adolescents.

GUIDANCE

Granting that a given school can provide adequate offerings, "guidance" by all personnel who deal with the pupil is vital to the program's effectiveness. Without considering all of the implications of personal, sociological, educational, and vocational guidance, we must recognize that each is dependent and influencing on the other, and that every teacher has a guidance role. Trained counselors and an understanding administration can help, but the individual teacher is paramount.

EXPLORATION

Guidance and curriculum planning can go hand in hand. In this concept, the exploratory nature of our schools can assume a broader base. Exploration has too long been thought of as the "playing-with" or "coming-in-contact-with" type of thing, usually in areas other than those usually considered "academic," to help pupils determine electives in later school years. More thought should be given to the exploratory nature of academic fields as well.

For example, in the fields of science and mathematics, if exploration and stimulation for further study are part of the philosophy behind their respective courses of study, the junior high school can be a great influence in increasing the number of students pursuing these studies further, thereby increasing the potential number of technical and scientific students in our high schools and colleges. Basic to this concept is recognition that the junior high school operates during a period of great impressionability and that later high-school years are often too late to transform or create attitudes developed earlier. To this end, retention of youth remains one of our jobs, even though our impact (because of legal supports that provide against drop-outs in junior high-school years) cannot be felt before senior high-school days.

Summary of the presentation made by ROBERT H. DOW

INDICATIONS are plentiful that the educational program in the junior high school is at last coming of age. After forty years of experimentation and vacillation, in which it was often subject to sharp criticism, it now seems that a rather general acceptance and agreement concerning the junior high school has emerged. This is not to say that the program has attained perfection, or that everyone sees eye-to-eye in the matter of what the educational program should be, but the organizational pattern of the junior high school has taken shape and there is a more-or-less standardized interpretation of the role of the junior high-school in our American public school system.

Robert H. Dow is Principal of the Parrish Junior High School in Salem, Oregon.

If these assumptions are correct, perhaps the era of radical change in the junior high-school program has passed. What is needed now in the educational program is not so much new and startling ideas, but for junior high-school people to refine and improve upon the framework which exists. To put it another way, the junior high-school idea has won acceptance, and now emphasis should be placed on the consolidation of its position. What is needed is application rather than innovation.

It is generally recognized that the educational program should be particularly designed to meet the needs of youth during the years of early adolescence; that the curriculum provide a core of common experiences leading to broad understanding, good citizenship and successful personality adjustment; that there be exploratory courses for some students to whet their appetites in certain fields of knowledge; and that all of these should be differentiated in such a way that the variations in individuals are met.

Beyond the academic program and complementary to it, the junior high-school is expected to offer an activity program which will give youngsters important experiences through participation in school government, school service groups, athletic competition, and different club organizations. Furthermore, provisions should be present in the good junior high school for a well-organized guidance program—personal, social, pre-vocational, and educational.

To describe the above qualities of the modern junior high-school's educational program, there is a host of impressive terms at the educator's disposal. Integration, socialization, articulation, differentiation are just a few that are familiar to anyone associated with this level. All in all, this makes a rather large order for the junior high school to fill.

As a starting point toward improving what exists, it should be ascertained that the educational program is academically sound. This is to say that factual subject matter is provided and that a thorough foundation for the youngsters in the basic skills of arithmetic, reading, and writing are present. These are requisites of any successful school program.

More attention should be directed toward the grouping of youngsters for instruction. For most of the students, there should be a continuing program designed to enlarge upon the fundamentals established earlier. For a smaller number of brilliant students, there should be special sections, taught by the best teachers available, and planned to stimulate the students curiosity in fields not touched by the regular classes. Finally, for those youngsters who come to junior high-school with an inadequate grasp of the fundamentals, there should be remedial sections scheduled. These are just two of the areas worthy of intensive consideration.

Perhaps junior high-school people have been guilty of talking and writing extravagantly about their programs which in reality are only partially successful. Until the educational program actually approaches fulfillment of the claims which have already been made for it, those as-

sociated with this level should declare a moratorium on the introduction of startling or radical ideas. Only by developing the present program until it is sound throughout will the junior high-school earn its deserved place as a part of the American public school system. Despite its basic advantages and considerable achievements, there is still a long way to go.

HOW CAN THE STUDENT COUNCIL BEST CO-OPERATE WITH THE PRINCIPAL IN ADMINISTERING THE SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *R. T. Jacobsen*, Principal, Jonathan Dayton Regional High School, Springfield, New Jersey

DISCUSSANTS:

W. K. McCharen, Director, Peabody Demonstration School, Nashville, Tennessee

Rowland H. Ross, Principal, Hastings High School, Hastings-on-Hudson, New York

Summary of the presentation made by R. BRUCE ALLINGHAM

IT IS well for us to establish the premise in the very beginning of our discussion that, unless there is cooperation between the student council and the principal, the student council can never become an effective and positive force in the evolution of an outstanding school. Furthermore, I feel very strongly that a school can never develop a truly outstanding educational program unless the tremendous potential contribution of its boys and girls can be skillfully guided toward goals whose ultimate importance is clear to both these youth and the adults of the school community (the teachers).

Finally, let us face the issue squarely and admit that, unless we as administrators have been fortunate enough to have acquired a genuine understanding of and respect for the sincerity, the integrity, and the idealism of these youngsters, we cannot hope to realize the amazing and awesome benefits which cooperative school administration can bring to us. If an administrator does not believe from the bottom of his heart that high-school students are fundamentally honest, cooperative, dependable, and loyal to those for whom they have liking and respect, these students will sense it and there will be no basis for mutual confidence, respect, and loyalty—the necessary ingredients for a truly cooperative endeavor.

R. Bruce Allingham is Principal of the York Community High School in Elmhurst, Illinois.

In like manner, the teachers in a school must be convinced of the soundness of this basic premise or their role in a cooperatively administered school will produce only negative results. If they are apprehensive and insecure in such an endeavor, if they obviously lack faith in the ability of youth to join in cooperative efforts for the good of the school community, there can never be the completely gratifying results toward which the program is actually directed.

Most of us probably will agree that the *most* important element in a genuinely successful effort in cooperative school management or administration is that of attitude. If there is a mutual feeling of confidence, respect, and enthusiasm among the students, the teachers, and the administration, the program has a good chance of succeeding. But to achieve this, there must be a framework of organization which will serve to stimulate its development. The speaker has found it highly rewarding, therefore, to incorporate several extremely significant characteristics into the governing program of his school.

1. The student council, which implies "student government," is a misnomer. We actually try to have a cooperative pupil-teacher-administrative system of school management.

2. The chief governing body to which students are elected, should also have members of the faculty (elected by the faculty) as regular participating members, nor just as overseers or supervisors.

3. Students should be directly elected to this chief governing body (called variously by such terms as the "council," "senate," "congress," and the like) from such basic organizational groups as home rooms, to which they are responsible as representatives. There must be a real "grass-roots" group to which each elected representative is responsible, or the lack of close communication between the governing organization and the student body soon results in indifference and apathy.

4. Meetings of the governing body should be held in school time and should be held often enough (at least twice a month) and should be long enough (usually 2-3 hours) to give time for real discussion on matters important to the school and its total program, and for the planning of projects which the governing body undertakes in contributing to the positive progress of the school.

5. The governing body should be encouraged to consider almost any phase of the school program with mutual respect and understanding for each others' fundamental rights and obligations as a basis for free discussion. (The writer has insisted on only one real limitation: "We will not discuss teachers. That is my responsibility as the administrator. If any pupil has a complaint regarding a teacher, I will be glad to discuss the matter privately with the pupil and the teacher, but it is not to be a matter of open discussion.")

6. Administrators who wonder whether such an extensive program of cooperative school management might lead to a breakdown of control should be assured that we *start* with good behavior. We insist on a high standard of cooperation and conduct as a foundation for the success of the program. The result: ninety-five per cent of the students make a continuing effort to meet the high standards set by their own cooperative governing body, and the few who refuse to go along and must be penalized receive no sympathy from the others. Even when so-called "leaders" or "good kids" run afoul of the accepted code and are punished, there is no resentment from others—only regret and the hope that the misguided one will not let them down again.

Summary of the presentation made by GERALD M. VAN POOL

THE student council is, and ought to be, the most important student organization in the entire school. It is the *only* school organization to which all students belong and in whose activities they all have a part. It is the *only* student organization which represents all students and can speak for them. Therefore, it is of utmost importance that the student council be a credit to both the school and the community; that it engage in worth-while and beneficial projects; and that everyone understands the aims and purposes of this organization. Some basic principles which will assist the student council and principal to work together, co-operatively, are here summarized briefly.

1. *Delegation of Authority.* It must be understood right at the start that all powers of the student council are delegated powers—powers which the principal has made available to the council, but which he can rescind at any time and for any reason. Thus, for the principal and the council to work together more harmoniously, the students must understand that the student council is not self government—that they are not being given permission to "run" the school. The proper term is "student participation in school administration." This is a more awkward phrase than "self government," but it is, nonetheless, a more descriptive phrase and closer to the truth than "self government."

2. *Areas of Authority.* The council and the principal can work together in close harmony if the council understands that there are some areas in which they can and should be extremely active but that there are some other areas which are under the proper jurisdiction of the faculty and school administration. Much trouble and misunderstanding can be avoided if all the students know early in the year what powers are theirs and what powers belong to someone else. There will be a much finer

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spirit of co-operation between principal and council, for example, if these powers are explained at the outset and if the school does not wait until an unpleasant situation has arisen before the air is cleared and the situation adjusted.

3. *The Council Represents and Speaks for All Students.* The student council consists of representatives elected throughout the entire school. Thus, each member of the council is in close contact with a fairly small group, the group which elected him, and to which he must make periodic reports. Thus, he is in an especially advantageous position to determine student thinking on any school matter or problem. The council can serve the principal well if it keeps him informed on what students think on any subject and if it does its best to interpret that thinking so that proper decisions can be made and courses of action decided upon.

4. *Leadership in Good Projects.* In general, the better schools are those in which there are numerous outstanding projects in progress. It is the duty of the council to take the lead in suggesting good projects, in assisting the various classes and groups to sponsor such projects, and to sponsor many of them itself. The principal has the right to turn to his council for advice and assistance in promoting those activities which students wish and from which the most benefits can be derived.

5. *Understanding the Basic Philosophy.* It will be quite difficult for the student council and the principal to co-operate effectively unless the principal has a wide knowledge of student councils in general, knows what they are set up to do, why they have been organized, and what their proper function is. He must understand that the council is not a police force, a cheap labor battalion, informers, or busybodies. He has to understand that the student council is primarily an educative device, an organization to help students learn to do by doing and to be good citizens by practicing good citizenship.

6. *Faculty Participation and Understanding.* The council can work best and perform best if the faculty, as well as the principal, understand the objectives of the organization. Too often, teachers consider the council as a form of play-acting, a means of getting out of doing something else, a device to escape regular classwork, or simply a frantic, frenzied activity accomplishing nothing to a great accompaniment of noise and confusion. In some cases, this may be true, but generally the student council is made up of members who believe that their school work comes first and foremost, who can keep up with their classes and still do excellent service on council projects. The principal can be of immense help to the council if he will assist the faculty to know what the council is and what its basic motives are.

7. *Physical Equipment.* The council can be of most service to a principal if it has pleasant and adequate quarters in which to work. The council should have a room of its own, if possible. If not, then the council

ought to have a room in which all of its supplies and records can be kept, and not be shunted about from room to room, with no place to call its own. This room should be well equipped with all the necessary materials such as a typewriter, file cabinet, paper, desks and chairs, *etc.*, *etc.*

8. *The Sponsor.* The principal should appoint someone as sponsor who has a genuine love for young people, who knows and understands them, who does not accept the role of council sponsor in a spirit of self-sacrifice, and who does not feel that her council assignment is some kind of hardship inflicted upon her. The council can and will co-operate best if its sponsor is someone who has been appointed to that position because of some definite qualities or special characteristics making her the best person in the whole school for that particular position.

9. *Time.* If a principal wants to secure the maximum amount of co-operation from his student council, he should arrange to have the council meet at a regular time, in a regular place, and as often as once a week. The council can be most helpful to the principal if it knows when and where it will meet so that all business can be conducted on a regular schedule. The hit-or-miss council probably will never amount to much; the council that has to meet when it can, where it can, and IF it can probably is little more than a club, accomplishing little and certainly of no particular value to a principal who wants and needs the assistance and co-operation of a good student council in administering a good school.

WHAT PRACTICES IN SCHOOL DISCIPLINE DEVELOP BETTER STUDENT-TEACHER RELATIONSHIP?

CHAIRMAN: *Stephen C. Brown*, Principal, Sidney High School, Sidney, Ohio

DISCUSSANTS:

Charles E. Lehman, Principal, Carlisle Junior High School, Carlisle, Pennsylvania

George E. Miller, Principal, North Little Rock Senior High School, North Little Rock, Arkansas

Summary of the presentation made by LIEB RICHMOND

THROUGHOUT the course of history the conception of school discipline has evolved in keeping with the culture of its period. In the gradual evolvement from one position of extreme authority to the opposite position of self-discipline, critics have been stationed to stand in judgment

Lieb Richmond is Principal of the Roosevelt Junior High School in Tulsa, Oklahoma.

from a chosen vantage point somewhere along this scale. How the individual views the whole subject of discipline may depend on one or more of his own past experiences. Many believe that one's concepts concerning behavior, for the most part, are based on the individual's early experiences wherein patterns of conformity were forced upon him. If any part of such an explanation may be accepted, it is little wonder that criticism is a foregone conclusion, no matter what course the schools may follow.

School systems have made some remarkable strides in the matter of discipline. Not all advancement has come by choice, but some of it has come in groping for workable solutions to new problems that have been thrust upon us. Present day living habits create and bring the schools to grips with some of the most trying problems yet known. The search for solutions to present day problems of youth could serve to bring about a more intelligent approach to the issue of student discipline. It is important to know at this time that a major share of our disciplinary failures could have been avoided with careful planning at the outset. This fact is a hopeful sign and places a great premium on educational staff members, particularly those assigned primarily to guidance responsibilities. Policies concerning discipline require concerted action and understanding on the part of all groups involved, yet it is somewhat easier to divide these groups for study and assessment of certain responsibilities.

The principal occupies a most important position in the matter of the school's discipline, for his actions and his philosophies serve to set a climate which determines the effectiveness of the staff's efforts. The relationships between principal and faculty must epitomize what he hopes will be the pupil-teacher relationship. His actions create a permissive atmosphere in which staff members are encouraged to attack problems of discipline both in and out of the classroom. The attack must be planned and thorough. Organization must be provided with the creation of faculty committees to accept definite responsibilities. If staff members are expected to act deliberately and intelligently on any phase of student problems, it is necessary for the principal to provide sufficient time for this purpose.

The staff may view its problems purely from an academic standpoint and look to its guidance and administrative specialists for help, or it may face up to its issues and work effectively to some solutions, using all the resources available. Our staff members have usually worked on committees of their choice to handle some phase of student problems. Placing confidence and responsibilities on all staff members offers opportunities for faculty growth and it creates further a spirit of "taking hold" beyond the normal classroom routines. In the realm of classroom problems, small faculty groups have formed many solutions to everyday problems.

If the ideal of self-discipline becomes the final goal, the student must play an important part in planning and formulating policies, rules, and penalties for conduct. Quite often it is as difficult to practice this ideal

as it is easy to state it. Usually we bog down on reaching the practical aspects of organized effort. The group effort may come through counseling rooms, student council, small schools within the school, student-faculty committees, activity groups, class councils, or any combination of those mentioned. We have found a strong counseling room organization most successful. In any event, organized student effort must possess the following characteristics if it is to function; namely, specified responsibilities, status with the faculty, participating opportunities, sympathetic faculty guidance, and realistic problems.

Adults in the community often hold unfounded views and convictions concerning school discipline. We have found these views to be the results of an uninformed public. Faculties adopt the realistic practice of accepting students with whatever qualifications and deficiencies they may possess; the same policy should apply to the community. Parents are kept informed and asked to participate in all proposed policies that are school wide in their scope. Complete understanding of disciplinary practices tends to keep criticism at a minimum and serves to enlist the cooperation of parents.

Space limitation does not permit a discussion of followup procedures or evaluations at regular intervals, but posing certain questions rather constantly may serve to insure desirable results.

1. Are we moving too fast to find the real solution?
2. Are we keeping all groups informed?
3. Are we counting heavily on memory or is it time for reorientation?
4. Are policies in operation reasonable?
5. Are we making the best use of all available information?
6. Are we thinking ahead?
7. Are we providing for continuous followup?

Summary of the presentation made by LAWRENCE E. VREDEVOE

THE term "school discipline" as commonly used today usually refers to a behavior pattern which is evaluated in relation to certain standards or rules. These standards or rules may have been arbitrarily established, an outgrowth of tradition or custom, based upon expediency, representative of teacher-student or teacher-student-administration agreement, or the result of continuing study-evaluation and involvement of all concerned. The methods used in establishing the standards and measurements for evaluating "school discipline" are in many cases directly related to the outcomes. "Good" or "poor" discipline depends upon the standards or measurements applied to the individual's behavior or the

Lawrence E. Vredevoe is Professor of Education in the University of California at Los Angeles.

behavior pattern of the group. The value judgment given to these standards should reflect careful study, research, and group thinking. Participation in final adoption or acceptance should involve all those concerned to the degree of their ability; namely parents, students, teachers, and administrators.

The first criterion in school discipline should be an understanding of the adopted standards and rules—their origin, value, purpose, relationship to individual, group welfare, and the educational process. Many of the rules and standards enforced in schools observed¹ were of themselves unrelated and irrelevant to the primary objectives of the school or group activity. Others which were essential in contributing to a good "climate" or conditions in which to work and study were not understood by teachers in some cases, and students in others. An understanding and participation in formulating standards, rules, and desired behavior patterns, and their acceptance by those involved should be the first step in establishing better teacher-student relationship in school discipline.

The second criterion should be a sincere attempt to establish self-discipline on the part of all individuals in the group. This may seem too idealistic, but the majority in our democratic society demonstrate daily that they can be relied upon to practice self-discipline if the rules or standards are reasonable and understood. When the individual recognizes that observance is for the greatest good for the greatest number and when he understands the purpose and values in certain behavior patterns, he can be depended upon to make a sincere attempt to adjust. This will be more true if the individual feels that he has had a part in determining the standards and rules.

Although the majority can be depended upon for self discipline, the minority or often a very small percentage can make the situation most difficult. How to work effectively in such a way that the desired behavior pattern as well as good teacher-student relationship will occur is the problem which faces the majority of administrators and teachers. Studies have shown that disciplinary problems caused by this minority have been responsible for the failures of many beginning teachers. In reply to the question of "What gives you greatest concern or worry as you plan for your first teaching position?" asked in interviews with fourteen hundred prospective teachers in the past four years, one thousand eight gave discipline as their greatest concern. Seventy-four student-teacher candidates out of one hundred twenty-three present in a class at a leading university last semester gave either discipline or rapport with students as the first or second chief concern. Sixteen hundred eighty-nine parents out of two thousand who were critical of their secondary schools gave lack of discipline as one of their basic criticisms. Seventy-four of the one hundred

¹Seven hundred and fifty-eight secondary schools have been visited and observed by the author during the past eleven years. These included private, public, large, small, urban, rural, and suburban types. They were located primarily in the Mid-West and California.

selected administrators questioned as to chief reasons for failure to recommend re-employment or dismissal of teachers gave top ratings to terms which could all be classified in the broad sense under "discipline."

Critics of certain new courses, activities, and methods introduced in secondary schools seem to place great emphasis upon the apparent lack of "discipline" attributed to these innovations. Often the entire school's program is evaluated by certain individuals primarily by what they consider to be good behavior. Sometimes a careful analysis has revealed that a few non-conformists or problem cases have been selected by critics to use as a basis for judgment of the entire group. Credit for the majority who practice self-discipline is not given because of the few who misrepresent or overshadow the good discipline of the majority. It is, therefore, apparent that, after the observance of the basic criteria for good discipline, it will be necessary to deal with those few who lack either the ability or desire to practice self-discipline in accordance with recognized standards or rules.

The practices observed, in the secondary schools visited during the past ten years, to bring about a desired behavior pattern range all the way from brutal, corporal punishment to weeping on the part of the teacher in the presence of the students. Strange as it may seem, the rubber hose, steel-edged ruler, and rod are still to be found in some teachers' and administrators' desks and offices. Last year a beginning teacher in a school system, recognized for its modern program and methods, was told by his superior, "Don't hesitate to use force if any of your students act up. They are used to it and expect it." At the end of the first day, a colleague came into his room and asked, "How many did you beat up on today?" This was quite shocking to the teacher who thought that such practices were no longer to be found.

Punishments such as keeping hands above the head on a mark on the wall, sitting in a dark room, writing out assignments related to conduct, standing in front of the room or corner, performing janitorial work, being assigned a period in an elementary room for embarrassment, student trials, and being deprived of the right to participate in certain school activities were some of the practices observed and recorded in the notes. It is true that some of these may be isolated cases, but all represent a sincere attempt to bring about good discipline and respect for teachers.

It was also interesting to note the wide range of standards which students were asked to observe. Students in some schools were observed wiping their feet before entering the school, passing single file from class to class in silence, and rising whenever teachers or adults entered or left the room; in other schools, students were standing in the doorways smoking, slapping teachers on the back with "Hi pal," sitting on their desks during class recitations, and so crowding the corridors and classroom doorways that teachers had to shove their way through. One teacher said, "Follow me, I'll open a way for you to get through to the

office. You have to fight your way around here." Then there were the schools of over two thousand student enrollments where everything seemed to move with a high degree of decorum and good conduct. At two schools one could not find a teacher supervisor although two thousand or more students were out in the patios at one time for their morning snacks or "nutrition period."

The practices which students and teachers seemed to believe were most successful did not differ according to size, location, composition of student body, or type such as public or private. These practices did not employ the antiquated or outdated methods previously mentioned. In the ten schools selected as representative of the best citizenship and teacher-student relationships, these practices seemed to be common.

1. There was an understanding and apparent recognition of the purposes and values of the standards and rules in force by faculty and students.

2. Emphasis was placed upon self-discipline by teachers and students.

3. Good citizenship and conduct was characteristic of the faculty as well as the student body. Courtesy, consideration, respect, professional dress, manner, and good speech were practiced by the faculty members.

4. Standards and rules were subject to review and change, but were enforced until changed by due process.

5. The emphasis in treatment of all discipline cases was upon the individual involved and not the act. This represents a significant change in law enforcement in our democracy in the past fifty years. Today society is more concerned with the transgressor than the crime.

6. Students could expect fair but certain reprimand or punishment for violation of rules and standards. Teachers were confident that their colleagues were also trying to cooperate in maintaining standards.

7. The punishments meted out were fitted to the individual rather than the transgression.

8. Faculty and students cooperated in establishing, maintaining, and revising rules and standards.

Students questioned about the practices which they believed created the best relationships mentioned the following in the order of their frequency:

1. Interpreting the reasons and purposes of the rules.

2. Fairness in enforcement.

3. Treatment which recognizes maturity of student.

4. Consistency in enforcement.

5. Enforcement without embarrassment whenever possible.

6. Observance of the rules by teachers.

7. Opportunity to participate in making rules in areas where students are capable.

8. Elimination of waste of time of the many for the need to discipline the few. Students believe some teachers spend too much time during the class period with discipline cases which should be taken care of at another time.

9. Making the work so challenging that students will be kept busy and interested.

10. Conduct on the part of the teachers which demonstrates competence in dealing with adolescents. Teachers who can win the respect of their students.

Several teachers were observed who seemed to have little or no problem in maintaining good discipline and relationship with their pupils. The following seemed to be common characteristics of this group.

1. Competent in teaching area.
2. Knowledge of biological, sociological, and psychological characteristics of adolescents.
3. Sense of security in position, administrative relations, parental relations, and with the public.
4. Professional conduct, manners, and appearance.
5. Sincere interest in adolescents and teaching.

In summary of observations and comments by teachers and students, it is evident that good discipline is essential to have good schools and that it is to be found in many schools and classrooms today. Practices which bring about better relationships are those not so much related to the punishment of the transgressors, but rather in the methods of development and interpretation of the standards and the rules. Good citizenship should begin with the faculty members. Competence on the part of teachers who have a feeling of confidence and security is basic in developing good relationships with students. Whenever punishment or disciplinary measures are required they should be suited to the individual rather than the transgression. Fairness, consistency, and understanding should be characteristic of teachers in their treatment of disciplinary cases. Good discipline and teacher-student relationship are the results of intelligent cooperative, continuing, and united efforts on the part of all staff members and student leaders.

WHAT SHOULD THE SCHOOL DO FOR ITS GIFTED AND TALENTED YOUTH?

CHAIRMAN: *Alvin E. Westgaard*, Assistant Superintendent, Public Schools, Milwaukee, Wisconsin

DISCUSSANTS:

William S. Lane, Principal, Vashon Island High School, Burton, Washington

Dean F. Wagaman, Principal, Dodge City Senior High School, Dodge City, Kansas

Summary of the presentation made by ROSS A. WAGNER

PLATO, in the fourth century B.C., warned that Greece could not continue as a world power unless it sought out its talented youth by means of tests and trained them in science, philosophy, and metaphysics to be-

Ross A. Wagner is Principal of the Birmingham High School in Birmingham, Michigan.

come the future leaders of the state. Plato's predictions were discredited and Greece, as he knew it would, vanished.

Much concern is being evidenced today that the nation's gifted youth are being neglected by our American system of education. In our attempt to educate everyone, the gifted are being retarded by being held to achievement norms set by the average or mediocre students. This concern is intensified by reports from behind the Iron Curtain which reveal just the opposite side of the picture where great concentration is upon the development of the best minds. In other words, there are those today who believe that, in our present program of attempting to educate everyone, we are failing to differentiate in our program in terms of the different levels of ability represented.

In answering the question of what the school should do for gifted and talented youth, we must first of all answer the question: "What kinds of individuals would we like gifted and talented youth to be as a result of our educational efforts?"¹ This broad question needs further defining in the areas of intellectual achievement, social competence, and moral values. It would seem that we want to strive to develop individuals who will have high specialization in at least one area in which their particular talents lie, who will find satisfaction in living with others of varying talents and interests, and who will use their talents to improve conditions for themselves and others. Any program designed to achieve these goals would include the following fundamental principals:

1. We must be interested in identifying and developing any and all talents. We want to encourage expression in music, art, dance, creative writing, dramatics, *etc.* as much as intensive study in the various academic areas such as science, mathematics, literature, history, and language.

2. The training of gifted and talented youth must provide for continuous association with students of varying abilities and interests. This means that a basic program of general education for effective citizenship for all high-school youth must be provided.

3. An adequate program of elective subjects must be provided in the high school which will allow for a degree of specialization in the areas of the different special interests of the group. Various curriculum patterns which provide for a degree of specialization for the academically gifted and for those with talents in such areas as creative writing, music, art, dramatics, *etc.* must be made available.

4. Increase the number of subject-matter areas and emphasize depth of understanding and skills in the areas which the gifted pursue. Perhaps permit them to take college-level subjects in high school and be admitted to college with advanced standing in these areas. This objective should provide advance orientation to college instruction and thus introduce new patterns of motivation while still in high school.

5. A guidance program must be developed which will provide for adequate individualized counseling. Through this field of work, we must learn to know each and every student in a more complete fashion than is provided in our schools today.

¹Herbert J. Klausmeier, "The Gifted: What Will They Become?", *Phi Delta Kappan*, 28: 112-116, Dec. 1956.

Individual talents and interests must be discovered and guidance in the planning of curricula provided.

6. Cooperation among colleges, specialized schools, and high schools must provide for experimentation with different talent groups.

7. Special grants and foundation programs should be utilized for experimentation.

8. Industry should be encouraged to utilize some of its specialists to work with different talent groups.

One of the most unique experiments² illustrating what can be done by the co-operation of colleges and high schools was carried on at the University of Texas for five weeks in the summer of 1956. Here twenty-eight students who had finished their junior year in fourteen high schools were invited to the University campus. They participated in a trial run on an idea for pooling school and college resources to provide exceptional opportunities for exceptionally able high-school youngsters. This program consisted of a five-week, all-day excursion into the realm of chemistry, conducted by a college professor, assisted by a high-school chemistry teacher, two graduate student laboratory helpers, the University's specialist in science education, members of the chemistry, biology, and physics faculties, and representatives of industrial research and development. Lectures played a prominent part, but direct free laboratory work, visits to industry, demonstrations, construction of scientific projects, and discussion sessions were employed in generous measure. These students received no academic credit of any kind. They paid no fees, but had to provide their own room and board. This experiment accomplished the following goals:

1. It provided an opportunity for a group of particularly able students to get far enough into a field to be challenged.

2. It will make it possible for these students to enter college with advanced standing in chemistry.

3. It introduced new patterns of motivation in the senior year since it provided advance orientation to college instruction.

4. It developed an interest on the part of the college in high-school youngsters and further developed a new respect for high-school teaching.

5. It showed that a college can supplement the resources and personnel of the high school.

²L. D. Haskew, "Advanced Study for Exceptionally Able High-School Students," *Exceptional Children*, 23: 50, 89, Nov. 1956.

Summary of the presentation made by ROBERT G. ANDREE

I AM limiting my remarks on this important topic to the description of a very important program which is sponsored for Rich Township, a suburb of Chicago, in South Cook County, Illinois. It will be initiated in June 1957. The basic principles and practices of the program are now being worked upon.

A great deal of attention has been paid in this last decade to the slow learner and to those who are not able to continue at a reasonable high-school level of achievement. For these, summer schools have developed, in which they were allowed to "catch up" with their peers. For boys and girls who are intellectually gifted, we have turned off their minds sometime in June and turned them on again the middle of September. This act constitutes a wasteful approach to the use of our greatest natural resource, our youth.

It is proposed in Rich Township that Honors courses be set up beginning June 1957 so that boys and girls throughout the summer can participate in an Honors reading program. These boys and girls will be recruited from the top fifteen per cent of the class and will represent the intellectual cream of our group. Participation in the program will be voluntary, but, once a commitment has been made, provisions will be worked out with parents so that we will not experience an excessive drop-out rate. Students at the sophomore, junior, and senior levels will be invited by the director of the program and his assistants to participate in this program. In addition, there will be meetings of the parents of these selected students to discuss the emotional, social, and physical aspects of this program and to encourage parents to share their observations with us as to the success of our plans as they develop.

PROGRAM FOR THE GIFTED

The program is simple. Each morning, six or seven selected teachers will meet with boys and girls, sometimes by appointment only, to discuss their outside reading. Lists for this reading are now being prepared with the help of the staff and certain community leaders. Sometimes the consultant teachers will meet the boys and girls in groups for a broader discussion of areas of learning. The areas proposed now include: (1) current affairs and modern history, (2) great books and good literature, (3) German, (4) French, (5) Spanish, (6) mathematics, and (7) science seminar.

In the afternoons, this group of seven teachers will meet regularly to plan for their immediate work and also for the basic program to be

Robert G. Andree is Principal of the Rich Township High School, Park Forest, Illinois.

presented in our Honors courses beginning September 1957. The director of this program will arrange through his various teachers to enlist the support of intellectual strength in the community which fits in at all with the reading and the program being planned. Thus, boys and girls with a primary interest in biology will be able to sit down with scientists of this community to discuss in an informal way the things that they have been reading. Students in mathematics will do the same. Park Forest, especially, has an extensive number of people who are engaged presently in this field and who could contribute significantly to the education of our pupils. The same plan would fit with a great-books program, although there I envisage a large number of groups because of the size that this program may take and the number of students it may attract. We have outstanding geophysicists, geographers, historians, "contemporary world affairs" folk, and others who are residents of Rich Township and who will be delighted to help our boys and girls. These informal conferences will take place during the evening in the school, in someone's "family room," or back yard, or in other neighborhood areas.

FINANCING THE PROGRAM

The chief concern of the board of education will be to find sufficient money to pay the seven teachers during the summer. A sum of \$3,500 will be set aside for this purpose. Since the new fiscal year begins July 1, I see no difficulty in providing for it in the 1957-58 budget.

EVALUATION OF PROGRAM

The program will have four sets of evaluation, none of them difficult to administer. For example, pupils who register for this summer program will participate in a testing and evaluation program in August to determine (a) their degree of proficiency in an area, (b) their degree of advance or progress in an area, (c) their capabilities for entering our Honors courses that meet in the fall, winter, and spring. Sophomores and juniors thus will have three years and two summers or two years and one summer respectively with one teacher. It is hoped that this continuity will produce excellent results. Evaluation of a greater type will take place in the senior year when all boys and girls involved in the program will participate in the National Merit Scholarship Program, the May tests for advanced placement and advanced credit to college, and the National Honor Scholarships.

WHAT IS THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL IN DEMOCRATIC ADMINISTRATION?

CHAIRMAN: *Joseph B. Chaplin*, Principal, Bangor Senior High School, Bangor, Maine

DISCUSSANTS:

Sister Mary Elias, O.P., Principal, Sacred Heart Academy, Washington, D. C.

Evan Engberg, Principal, North Hollywood Junior High School, Los Angeles, California

Merritt B. Jensen, Principal, Cheyenne Senior High School, Cheyenne, Wyoming

Summary of the presentation made by **PHILIP A. SCHWEICKHARD**

I SUGGEST that the first duty of the principal with respect to democratic administration is to interpret to his people what may be involved in the application of the democratic concept to the schools. The experience of many of his patrons has conditioned them to the view that a good school is extensively authoritarian. State laws, state department regulations, and the ukases of local boards of education and administrators are for the most part mandatory in nature and do not naturally support the assumption that schools are laboratories of democracy.

Schools are institutions of a democratic society, but they are not impressively democratic institutions. "A good school is a strict school" remains a traditional criterion. "Pupils have no respect for the authority of teachers" is a favorite theme of critics, some of whom are within the schools themselves. They still reproach the school for not "making" pupils learn, and regard, as weak indulgence, any change that would make learning agreeable to the learner or that would give consideration to the inclinations and the partnership of the young participants themselves in the undertaking. They expect young people to be well indoctrinated in the facts of their democratic country's history, and the functioning of its political machinery, but they are not concerned that these ends be attained by means which are democratic.

A small bloc of the profession, too, still regards school discipline as something static, bequeathed to them, rather than the pattern of understanding and cooperative relationship between teachers and learners which is most favorable to the achievement of the important functions of the school. The process by which a principal may bring his patrons, pupils, and the hard core of his teachers to accept a democratic concept

Philip Schweickhard is Supervising Principal of the Amherst Central High School in Snyder, New York.

for the school, itself, involves the skillful application of democratic procedures. It cannot be instituted by fiat. It involves both philosophy and skills and can be accomplished by the slow processes of education only. With pupils, the course is much easier. They learn so readily—they have so few preconceived attitudes—they are a captive audience. The activities programs, the student councils, and all of the outlets for student initiative available in modern schools prepare pupils so smoothly and naturally to participate actively in the classroom and total life of the school as often to create a false sense of security regarding the acceptance of the new order by the community. There is hardly a principal, happily confident of the firm establishment of democratic processes in his school, but has had to deal quite unexpectedly with a campaign of propaganda about the chaos, impudence, lack of scholarship, preoccupation with frills, or other alleged manifestations of deterioration of the schools, originating with the improperly informed or adversely disposed of his community. Recently, the principal of a large senior high school, well known for its high standard of democratic procedures with teachers, students, and the public in an enlightened suburb, was beset by the lone campaign of a disgruntled teacher who, unable to persuade pupils who were accustomed to a degree of self-direction to accede to his autocratic techniques, resigned in a huff and assailed the school administration in a deluge of letters to parents accusing it of the abandonment of discipline and scuttling of scholarship. The students are easy, but you had better not take too much for granted about the community, and you should even keep a weather eye on the staff.

In the area directly involving the board of education in relation to school personnel and the public, the responsibility of the principal for democratic administration is not lessened the while his resources for discharging it are more limited. His problem is complicated too where he may have to deal with the board through a superior administrator and may have no direct channel for communication with it. State laws for the governance of schools generally do not require the observance of democratic procedures in the operation of the schools beyond the point of the election or appointment of board members, the approval of budgets, *etc.* The responsibility for the conduct of the schools beyond that point is placed squarely and heavily on the board to discharge democratically or otherwise as it may choose or learn. Here, too, the principal's most important, if not his only role, is to interpret the democratic concept of administration to his board or to his superiors. He lives closely with the ferment that has been working for years among teachers and knows how important it is to take them into account in decisions affecting their work or their welfare. He is not deceived by the extensive surface rash into thinking that all that teachers want is more pay. They want most to be treated as professionals and respected as individuals and to be counted as belonging to the team. He knows that he cannot hold his staff

together unless he deals with them in true democratic spirit and takes them in as voting partners in the enterprise. Unless he can persuade his superiors to accept this philosophy and negotiate with teachers under conditions of mutual understanding and respect, he is caught between upper and nether millstones. The current shortage of teachers has this compensating balm—that it has hastened the acceptance of democratic processes as between teachers and their employers and has stimulated the organization of local associations. Where this natural course has met with resistance, labor organizations have not been slow to exploit the advantage.

The principal must needs be involved too in the growing concern of the public for a voice in local educational matters in the interim between annual school meetings. He must interpret to the board the potential which lies in organized and informed groups of laymen. If successful in convincing them, the trick will be turned the next time they attempt a sizeable bond issue without such assistance.

Summary of the presentation made by HAROLD E. McNABB

THROUGHOUT this land of ours and particularly in educational circles there have been volumes written and as many more words spoken regarding this business of democratic relationships. There has been agreement, even among educators, as to what constitutes the general principles of these democratic relationships. The matter of techniques and procedures operating in an environment characterized by democratic action has been, and is, quite a horse of another color. Educators along with other groups have not reached any kind of agreement among themselves regarding the specific and the definite of democratic theory and practice. Too many people in our profession have talked a good job of democratic leadership. The actual job and the doing has been quite a different picture. Many principals whom you and I know would have us believe that democratic practice is the method of operation they are now using. They have embraced theory, but, at the same time, they have tried to retain all their old and familiar patterns of behavior.

There is no intention of being unduly critical of those principals who are conscientiously trying to function in a democratic manner. There are many and in every state. The deserving should receive credit for their efforts. Progress is of necessity quite slow. To expect immediate evidence of success is to demand the impossible. Our prime need at the moment is to agree among ourselves as to what constitutes the role of the principal in democratic administration. What does it look like? How does it act?

Harold E. McNabb is Principal of the Albany High School in Albany, Georgia.

What does it taste like? What does it do with people? To people and for people? The role of the principal in democratic administration is built upon:

1. Developing cooperatively with pupils, teachers, and parents a sensible philosophy for thinking and doing in the solution of common problems.

2. Helping all groups in and about the school to come to a realization that the principal as the titular head of the school is in the group as a participating member and not outside of it.

3. Identifying himself with the faculty and sincerely working for their welfare as individuals and for the progress of the group.

4. Revealing the facts—facts about all kinds of things—and not concealing them.

5. Giving reasons for opinions he holds so as to insure a comfortable atmosphere in the interactive process.

6. Focusing attention on ideas and principles.

7. Speaking the unspoken desires and wishes of others and by organizing and bringing into a clear perspective the ideas others believe in but are not to express.

8. Operating scientifically in a learning environment where intellectual honesty and human welfare are the guiding lights that support decisions.

"Leadership in tomorrow's democratic group will be based on a positive point of view toward change, not an attitude that fails to recognize hazards in proposed programs, but a constructive outlook that sees ways and means of attaining desirable educational goals. Each year rules, regulations, policies, and practices will be re-examined in the hope that better ways can be discovered for serving the youth of this land."¹

An anonymous writer has expressed the strategic role of the principal in these lines:

- 1.. To the student—
He is a friend and protector.
2. To the teacher—
He is a guide and adviser.
3. To the parent—
He is a counselor and neighbor.
4. To the school superintendent—
He is a trusted officer.
5. To the community—
He is a leader and interpreter.
6. To the teaching profession—
He is a pioneer and builder.
7. To democracy
He is a loyal and active citizen.

¹W. S. Campbell, *Practical Applications of Democratic Administration*.

HOW CAN THE STUDENT COUNCIL BEST CO-OPERATE WITH THE PRINCIPAL IN ADMINISTERING THE SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *Gerald M. Van Pool*, Assistant Secretary for Student Activities, NASSP, Washington, D. C.

DISCUSSANTS:

Morris A. Shirts, Principal, University High School, Brigham Young University, Provo, Utah

Craighill S. Burks, Principal, McLean High School, McLean, Virginia

Summary of the presentation made by W. EUGENE SMITH

THE principal holds the key to the success of the student council and to the extent of the cooperation of that group in the high school. The student can best co-operate when the principal has indicated that he has confidence in and a working knowledge of the student council program and its related activities in the high school. Through the years, it has been apparent to those who worked closely with this effective device in our educational program, that the principal, working with the student council, who has taken the time to investigate, to learn student council techniques, to initiate and to promote student cooperative plans, exerts a positive influence and enjoys the advantage of student good will and assistance, thereby contributing substantially to the total school program of student activity. If there are any truly unsuccessful student council programs, it is invariably the result of the lack of knowledge of the true function of this student activity on the part of the students, sponsoring teachers, and the principal. The principal can be a cooperative, strong, working force with the student council if he has accepted the responsibility of learning the fundamental principles involved in the operation of a student council in the high school. A warm and sincere attitude toward accepted student projects, social life, scholarship programs, athletic, and out-of-class activity programs, as well as athletic activity on the part of the principal has a great influence on the teaching staff, thereby promoting effective council activity with a staff that is attempting to understand, to enrich, and to develop a good learning situation in the form of a sound student council. It is true that an uninformed teaching staff in the area of council activity creates a barrier that can, in many cases, only be eliminated by the principal. No other student activity exceeds the student council movement in affording students a proving ground in learning to deal with difficult situations. This is basically true because the student council has a breadth of scope and embraces a wide variety of wholesome, eager,

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talented students who have a great deal to offer at different grade levels. For the principal to realize the greatest benefit from the student council in the operation of his school, he must remember that even the wisest of the young will make mistakes. Here again the principal can prove himself by offering firm but experienced and sympathetic counsel to indicate his real interest in student affairs.

The principal's willingness to accept this educational device and to learn the numerous approaches to student council activity is certainly adopting the open-door policy that will allow the student council to work successfully with the principal to aid him in administering the school.

Summary of the presentation made by PAUL D. BREON

THE Student Council can be the most effective contact which a principal has with his school. Its use as a liaison between the student body and the administration cannot be over-emphasized, since a two-way channel of communication and understanding should be the result.

Any phase of cooperation between persons and/or organizations implies certain responsibilities for the parties involved. This is equally true here, when considering the student council-principal relationship. What are the responsibilities of the council? Five are mentioned as follows: (1) it should work within the framework and philosophy of the school; (2) it should understand its powers and limitations; (3) it should believe strongly in representation and in the value of student opinion; (4) it should understand that everyone benefits from a smooth organization; and (5) it should recognize that final responsibility inevitably falls upon the principal of the school.

What are the principal's responsibilities? They, too, may be five in number, as (1) he should provide a time and a place for meetings; (2) he should be willing to offer advice to the council; (3) he should assign a sympathetic sponsor; (4) he should help to sell the student council movement to faculty, students, and the community; and (5) he should appreciate the value of working through the council, even though this may appear to be the slow way of doing some things.

It almost goes without saying that if the council and the principal accept these responsibilities, the first step has been taken toward the cooperation for which we strive. Next, we need to translate this into a plan of action. A number of simple techniques is suggested, as follows: (1) council can work with the principal in the preparation of agendas for meetings; (2) the principal can be sent copies of agendas so that he is aware of what is to be discussed; (3) the principal can be invited to

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meetings and executive committee sessions; (4) the sponsor, president, and principal can have one conference each month; (5) copies of minutes should reach the principal's desk; and (6) all projects should be widely publicized in school and in the community, since publicity for the council is also publicity for the school.

The areas in which close cooperation will bear fruit in a better school are mentioned here, even though it is recognized that the list is only a partial one.

1. In the crowded hall or stairwell where all that is really needed is a "system."
2. In the orientation of new students.
3. In the improvement of school spirit.
4. In the development of a school code of ethics.
5. In the preparation and revision of a student handbook.
6. In inter-school relations, by arranging for the exchange of assemblies or visitation days.
7. In the improvement of assemblies.
8. In the promotion of charity drives, by working the "chest" plan.
9. In the improvement of cafeteria manners.
10. In the development of an activity calendar.
11. In the school safety program where the council can offer some positive approaches to counteract the recklessness of teenagers.
12. In the sportsmanship program.
13. In the financial administration of activities.
14. In the chartering of clubs.
15. In such miscellaneous areas where routine chores can expedite matters such as
 - a. Usher at Open House or College Night
 - b. Public address announcing
 - c. Bulletin board care
 - d. Write invitations to board members, faculty, parents, *etc.*
 - e. Help with PTA devotions
 - f. Maintain trophy and display cases
 - g. Maintain alumni file
 - h. Plan celebrations for special days
 - i. Assist teachers near the opening or closing of a school term
 - j. Help with fire drills
 - k. Sponsor lost-and-found service
 - l. Supervise decoration of halls and lobby during Christmas season
 - m. Maintain school scrapbook

The above areas are indicative of the numerous forms that this cooperation can take. The council can best cooperate with the principal, therefore, by developing a mutual understanding, by recognizing the areas in which work needs to be done, by setting up a plan of action, and then by making the plan really work. The Golden Rule applies here also, in that the council should give the same degree of cooperation to the principal, that it expects from the student body, faculty, and administration.

WHAT ARE RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN THE CONSTRUCTION OF NEW SCHOOL BUILDINGS?

CHAIRMAN: *Joseph E. Wherry*, Principal, Penn High School, Verona, Pennsylvania

DISCUSSANTS:

John J. Gach, Principal, West Division, Niles Township Community High School, Skokie, Illinois

Spencer M. Rice, Principal, Spartanburg High School, Spartanburg, South Carolina

John M. Riecks, Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Buildings and Grounds, Public Schools, Washington, D. C.

Summary of the presentation made by **WALTER E. SCOTT**

THE day of the standard school classroom is gone. Every school building should be tailor-made to the community's needs. In the construction of the Tantasqua Regional High School, a conscientious effort was made to do this. Because the creation of this new school district gave us an opportunity to include in the school plant many of the most recent developments in school construction, I would like to use it as a basis for discussion.

In picking the site for Tantasqua High School, we chose a site that would be as geographically central to the five towns of the district as possible and which at the same time contained the amount of space and kind of terrain that could be used in an expanding modern educational program. To exploit the hilly 116-acre site, a campus plan was developed with one-story buildings nestled into the terrain as though they were part of the landscape. To keep the feeling of being a natural part of the site, no red bricks have been used anywhere. Masonry walls are either field stone or concrete. The classroom buildings are grouped around a paved outdoor student center and the building housing the auditorium and the gymnasium is built in a natural ravine between two hills to minimize construction costs and to continue the low ground-hugging appearance. By careful placement in relation to the terrain, junior high- and senior high-school playing fields have been developed economically. Paved areas include six tennis courts, two volleyball courts, four handball courts, and parking areas for 350 cars.

Following the modern trend, the buildings have been built well back from the highway, and carefully placed on the site so that this original 700 student unit may be expanded to 1,250 students without encroaching on the outdoor play areas now established.

Walter E. Scott is Superintendent-Principal of the Tantasqua Regional School District, Sturbridge, Massachusetts.

Even though we have just finished our second year in the building, the site is rapidly becoming an outdoor classroom. The brooks, ponds, woods, fields, and marshes are providing a never-ending source of opportunities for developing stimulating and absorbing experiences related to many school subjects and activities. Science classes have set off a part of the marsh for raising and observing plant and animal life; physics, shop, and mathematics classes are collaborating on a water wheel for experimental electric power at the dam spillway; groups of students have developed a nature trail, a two-mile cross-country course, and have laid out a 20-acre school forest and an orchard and little farm area. Many teachers have already awakened to the possibilities of utilizing the site as an outdoor classroom.

It is of interest to note that, although general building costs have steadily risen in recent years, school building costs have actually not increased in the same proportion. This is largely due to increasing improvements made in construction techniques, structural elements, and functional design.

Single storied, campus design schools with multiple use of some rooms, prefabrication of certain construction materials, and a realization of the importance of long-range planning play an important role in obtaining well-built economical schools.

In the construction of our buildings, some of the trends just mentioned are evident. The entire window walls of the classroom buildings came to the site prime painted, in floor to roof length sections, ready for erection and glazing. Nearly all interior equipment was manufactured in a factory and shipped ready to assemble. Several rooms have been designed for multiple use. Our cafeteria can be shut off from the kitchen simply by closing some doors, and the large eating space can be divided into classroom and study hall areas by folding partitions. Considerable economy was achieved by designing the gymnasium locker rooms so that they can also be used as dressing rooms for stage activities.

The trend to one-story buildings has encouraged more and more use of top lighting. Long continuous sky lights of fiberglass installed over our classroom corridors, and use of plastic domes in other areas, flood the interior with natural light. With lighting problems largely overcome, classrooms thirty feet deep are clearly feasible.

Finally, one of the most exciting developments in connection with new school buildings is the generous use of color, both inside and out. Our Tantasqua buildings achieve some of their striking architectural beauty through clever and careful use of outside colors which, with the design, help to complete the impression that the buildings belong to this particular site. Likewise, as in many other buildings, soft, light colors on walls, floors, and desks make for a bright, cheerful atmosphere for school work.

Summary of the presentation made by WALLACE C. GLENWRIGHT

THE horde of young people, whose enrollment in schools has caused elementary school construction during the past six to eight years to be carried on at a rate heretofore unknown, is now entering high school. High-school planning and construction is proceeding at an unprecedented pace to take care of present day enrollments.

High-school buildings in most communities are old. Most were not constructed to provide the physical facilities necessary for a modern high-school program. Modern secondary-school plants are being planned so that a program which will meet the needs of the students of that community can be carried on. Buildings are no longer stereotyped, but their plans reflect the thinking of teachers, administrators, students, parents, townspeople, and architects.

My community recently began construction of a three million dollar high-school plant. Today the project is approximately eighty per cent completed. In addition approximately one-half million dollars will be spent for equipment. I should like to share some of my experiences in planning this project with those of you who are faced with a similar program.

Time for my presentation will certainly not permit any wide or detailed coverage on the subject of what's new in the field of school building construction. Rather I should like to emphasize or point out what I think are a few of the important factors that must be considered.

Is the site sufficiently large to take care not only of your present needs but also of your needs for many years to come? Have you considered possible consolidation of districts or annexation of surrounding territory? How would you be fixed for facilities if your community decided to extend the program to include the thirteenth and fourteenth years? Is the design of your building such that it can be easily expanded? The design of our building was determined after our needs were known and due consideration was given to possible future expansion.

Careful consideration must be given to the relationship between units or departments of your building. Will the building design and construction permit you to carry out your program with a minimum of trouble and confusion? Our plant which is, in part, a two-story structure, is designed such that the administrative offices form the hub of a partial wheel with four academic wings making up the several spokes. The auditorium also branches off from the hub. In close proximity to the stage of the auditorium are the vocal and instrumental music wings. The gymnasium, natatorium, cafeteria, library, study halls, health and recreation rooms, health service, and boiler room have all been placed in an

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arrangement which we feel will provide the desired inter-departmental relationship and give us a total plant which can be operated efficiently.

It is most important that teachers assist in the planning of the building. Enthusiasm and anticipation have been running high among staff members as we look forward to entering this new building next year. Each department was given the opportunity to sit in conference with the architect so that he could know of their desires. It gave the architect an opportunity to work with them on their recommendations and to point out what could not be done. It also gave the architect an opportunity to bring new ideas and fit them into the teachers' plans.

Selection of the architect is a most important item. Take advantage of experience by employing an architect who has been in close contact with school building construction, especially the secondary school. When large sums of money are spent to build a school, don't be satisfied with anything less than the best you can obtain in architectural services. You may be faced with the problem of by-passing a local architect to go elsewhere for one whom you feel has had more experience in planning the type of building you want.

Visit other schools which have been constructed recently. Take advantage of their experiences. Learn where the weaknesses and strong points are in their plants. Your notebook and tape measure come in handy on these visits. Don't drop in unexpectedly on the superintendent or principal of a new school. Your visit will be more profitable if he knows you're coming and has planned for it.

Equipping the building can, at times, appear to be a project equal in size to that of planning and constructing the building. Despite shortages in some lines of equipment, suppliers in great numbers are on hand to show you displays of every kind of equipment one could want in a modern high school.

Your big job is not so much deciding what to get, but which kind, how much or how many. Get samples from suppliers early in the program and try them out. For example, we have had one classroom equipped entirely with different kinds of classroom chairs for more than a year. An evaluation of these chairs by the students and teachers has helped us to decide on the type of chair we want.

In these days it is practically impossible to specify an exact date when you want equipment delivered. Due to the heavy demand for school equipment, it is doubtful that many suppliers can give you a definite delivery time. In trying to meet this situation, we have arranged with the contractor to complete, as soon as possible, an area in the industrial education wing which will be suitable for storage. Delay in putting this particular wing into use after classes begin in the new building will result in a minimum problem or no problem at all.

With costs continuing upward and with requests for equipment that was not considered at the time of the original planning, it is quite often

found that there just isn't enough money available to equip the buildings as completely as you would like. Local business and industry, organizations service groups, and interested individuals can help considerably in this problem. We have had numerous offers from these groups to make contributions in the form of machinery, books, money, business machines, *et cetera*. One industrial group has discussed the possibility of their being responsible for equipping an entire section of the Industrial Education department.

Each of the recent graduating classes has left fine gifts of money to be used for the purchase of equipment or furnishings. A group of alumni have requested the opportunity to contribute something to the new school. Already they have a sizeable amount of money in the bank for this purpose. These are all possibilities well worth exploring. They will enable you to get equipment and furnishings for your new building that otherwise might not be possible.

As we see school enrollments increasing in practically every school district in this country, more and more high school administrators are going to find themselves faced with the problem of providing new or increased facilities. Planning, constructing, and equipping a modern high school building is a great challenge. It is a most satisfying experience for all who played a part in its planning to see the project move speedily toward its completion.

WHAT ARE EFFECTIVE WAYS OF APPROVING AND ACCREDITING HIGH SCHOOLS WITH PARTICULAR REFERENCE TO THE UPGRADING OF INSTRUCTION?

(Arranged in co-operation with National Association of State Directors and Supervisors of Secondary Education)

CHAIRMAN: *H. Pat Wardlaw*, Assistant Commissioner, Division of Instruction, State Department of Education, Jefferson City, Missouri

CONSULTANT: *Raymond G. Wilson*, Executive Secretary, Committee on Secondary Schools, Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Atlanta, Georgia

Summary of the presentation made by PHILIP A. ANNAS

THE state has a dual function in approval and accreditation. It is obligated to establish minimum standards which shall be required of all schools approved for secondary-school attendance purposes. The state should also encourage communities to go beyond the minimum standards

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and establish secondary schools that will adequately meet the educational needs of the school-community.

This presentation will be in the form of a report on how Maine plans to use the approval and accreditation standards in meeting this dual obligation.

The Maine Legislature in 1955 passed the law, to become effective in 1960, that revised the standards for approval. These basic requirements for approval are similar to those found in most states and establish minimum requirements for secondary schools in the state. The new section of the law pertains to accreditation and is different from that found in most states. A portion of the section is as follows: "The Commissioner shall appoint an advisory committee consisting of professional and lay persons to assist in the development of these standards. No school shall be accredited until it has been evaluated by a committee qualified to appraise its functions and the success attending its program." The committee appointed to develop the standards consisted of three superintendents (representing large, medium, and small communities), the president of the state principals association, the president of the independent school principals association, a school committee member, a representative of the Legislature, and the executive director of the division of instruction.

The committee adopted the following basic principles: (1) accreditation should be voluntary, (2) there should be no financial reward in the form of increased subsidy from the state because of accreditation, (3) an accredited school should be a good school—one that is adequately meeting the educational needs of the school-community.

It was decided that accreditation of a given school should start with a study of the school-community by the high-school faculty. This study includes the following topics: enrollment trends, drop-outs, results of standard tests (including IQ tests), the educational intentions of the seniors, and the stability and quality of the faculty. The faculty will be asked to write a statement of its educational philosophy, including the aims and objectives that serve as a basis for its policies and activities.

When this information has been received by the state department of education, the composition of the visiting committee will be determined. The members of the visiting committee will be furnished with copies of the faculty's study. The first task of the visiting committee is to determine if the faculty's statement of aims and objectives of the school is in keeping with the educational needs of the students as revealed by the study of the school-community. If the school passes this test, it is then evaluated in four areas by the visiting committee; namely, school staff and administration, school plant, program of studies, and guidance. On the basis of this evaluation, the committee will recommend to the state department of education that the school is to be accredited for ten years, for five years, or not at all. When a school is recommended for accreditation for less than

ten years, the committee is to make suggestions as to what the school should do to receive full accreditation.

This form of accreditation is flexible. It does not require every school to meet the same standards; the requirements are adjusted to meet the peculiar needs of a given school. The evaluation involves all the members of the school staff and the administration. It gives promise of being a state instrument that will encourage and recognize good schools.

Summary of the presentation made by EVERETT V. SAMUELSON

HISTORICALLY, the accreditation of secondary schools was initiated by colleges and universities better to facilitate the entrance of high-school graduates into college. Standards developed for this purpose were concerned chiefly, if not exclusively, for the college preparatory course in the high schools. Emphasis was placed on the nature of the preparation of the high-school students in terms of the type of courses taken. In general, the standards developed were quantitative rather than qualitative in nature. Gradually, the dominance of college and university accreditation became more noticeable as the high-school program was serving only those planning to attend college.

State departments of education began to assume the responsibility for accrediting high schools in the early 1900's. Standards for accreditation included programs other than college preparatory, but continued to be primarily quantitative.

Recent studies in the area of accreditation and classification of schools have for the most part been status studies. Comparisons are made between states of such standards as teacher-preparation, teacher-load, number of teachers, etc. Emphasis has been placed on upgrading the standards which is felt will result in upgrading instruction.

The most effective way to improve instruction through state accreditation is through self-evaluation by the school as a part of the accrediting procedure. The *Evaluative Criteria* is used widely as an instrument for the school to follow in the self-evaluation process. Some states have utilized this as a part of their accrediting procedures. Two factors, however, appear to be deterrents in this process.

First, the periods between the self-evaluations of the schools are too long. Second, it is difficult, if not impossible, for a state accrediting agency to visit the schools effectively on a visiting committee basis. The North Central Association requires that a school seeking membership must make a comprehensive self-evaluation using the *Evaluative Criteria* and have a visiting committee spend from one to three days in the school.

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There is a tendency for a school, once admitted into the association, to complete the reports each year to certify that they are meeting the quantitative standards to be unqualifiedly approved. The value of the study made by the school is soon lost.

To be effective, an accrediting plan must provide that a school, once accredited, must show improvement to remain accredited. This improvement must be measured and evaluated at least in part by each school. It should be a continuous process. State accreditation has relied in the past largely on an inspectorial approach to determine whether or not schools are meeting the standards prescribed by the state. Schools tend to meet the standards in terms of remaining on the accredited list of schools rather than to meet such standards to improve their educational programs.

Advocates of classifying schools on the basis of criteria met by the schools contend that this results in upgrading and improvement of instruction. Under this scheme, size of school and the financial ability of the school often become the determining factors in reaching the highest classification. These criteria or standards are usually spelled out in quantitative measures.

We in Kansas have been taking a long look at our method and procedure in accrediting and classifying schools. Two years ago a new plan for accrediting elementary schools was implemented. This plan is based on minimum standards which all schools, public and parochial, must meet to be accredited. Classification of elementary schools was discontinued.

As schools tend to meet the minimum standards, they are revised and raised. Schools must show improvement to remain on the accredited list. A *Curriculum Guide for Kansas Elementary Schools* was developed for schools wishing to participate in a curriculum development program above and beyond the minimum program. Schools on a county basis or larger school systems may participate in this program if they enter into contractual agreement with the state department of education.

Through consultative help and cooperative planning, schools tend to improve their instructional programs and are involved in accreditation only in that they must meet minimum standards. There are fifty-nine county studies and fifty-three city studies involving over 7,600 teachers in this program for curriculum improvement. Each study unit selects a curriculum council which serves as a steering committee for this unit. The state department of education furnishes consultative help, guides, materials, and guidance in attacking the problems. The results of this program have been most gratifying.

We are currently making a study involving the high schools. Kansas is predominantly a state consisting of small schools and consideration must be given to this problem in any plan of accreditation. Size of school and teacher preparation have been the two criteria upon which classification

of schools has been based. This study will include 100 high schools which represent a stratified proportional sampling of A, B, and C high schools. It is hoped that out of this study will evolve a plan for accrediting which will include continuous critical evaluation on the part of the school. Quantitative standards, although important, will become secondary. Enforcing standards does not guarantee improved instruction; rather it provides the framework upon which the school may or may not build. Schools wishing to develop a program more than that prescribed by the standards should be given consultative help from the state department of public instruction, but not as part of the accrediting program.

HOW CAN THE SCHOOL AND THE HOME CO-OPERATE IN REDUCING DELINQUENCY AMONG SOME TEENAGERS?

(Arranged in co-operation with the National Congress of Parents and Teachers)

CHAIRMAN: *Charles P. Lindecamp*, Principal, Garfield Heights High School, Cleveland, Ohio

DISCUSSANTS:

Frederick P. Able, Principal, University High School, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota

W. E. Johannsen, Principal, Washington Junior High School, Dubuque, Iowa

Summary of the presentation made by MRS. RALPH HOBBS

No paper submitted.

Summary of the presentation made by HOWARD F. HORNER

REDUCING delinquency among some teenagers may be achieved by suggesting some preventive measures, and by considering corrective action. It is upon the preventive measures that I wish to comment. It should be established that every young person is potentially a delinquent, and whether he grows up to become one who commits certain crimes and has no respect for constituted authority or the property of others is determined by what he is taught in his home, by his friends, and by others in the community in which he lives. The preventive measures must correct or change the instruction that would otherwise lead to delinquency.

Howard F. Horner is Principal of the David Douglas High School in Portland, Oregon.

Greatest responsibility for this character training is with the home where attitude toward others, ethical standards, and a code of behavior are established. This is also the most difficult place to effect an improvement, as most parents of problem children are unwilling to accept responsibility for their children's acts. They assume a protective attitude in which they defend the youngsters even after it has been proven they are in the wrong. The great cry is, "He was involved with the wrong crowd. He is a good boy, but the others get him into trouble." This is even the case where the youngster may have a record of previous crimes, and be the oldest of the group involved.

Association with friends is second only to the home in effect upon the young person; it reaches its greatest importance during the teens. The strong desire of a youngster to belong and be accepted by a group may lead to acceptance of certain actions which are not in accordance with ethical standards of the home or school. It is tremendously important that parents understand the value of correct friends, and be interested and alert to the type of pals chosen by their children, especially during leisure hours.

Character development by the school and church is certainly important, but it is not sufficient to overcome the constant pressures of home and friends, if these are contradictory to those of the school and church. In many cases the church does not enter into the problem of the delinquent at all, in as much as the parents or children do not attend.

Cooperation of the home and school to prevent delinquency must be taken at an age in which the child is first discovered to be a problem, maybe about the sixth, seventh, or eighth grades. The teaching load should be such that time is available for the teacher to work with this youngster, and a staff of psychiatric workers and counseling service should be available to begin immediately to work with the youngster and the parents. It is at this point that expert help is most needed, as the salvation of the youngster may rest upon educating the parents to understand the problem and the great part they play in helping their child. Most students who become serious problems during their late teens have been in trouble with the law or the school authorities before entering high school. They could have been corrected at a much earlier age with proper parental supervision.

There is any number of projects which can be listed in which the school and home might co-operate to help the teenagers. The building of youth centers, the provision of adequate classes for all range of abilities, and the well-rounded activity program are examples of action taken for the youngsters, but none has the far-reaching effect equal to any plan to counsel with and educate parents. An example of this project is the development of a code of ethics by parents and students of a school to serve as a guidepost for parents in such things as chaperoning, late hours, dating, and similar problems.

Adult study groups, meeting to discuss problems of youth and problems peculiar to their own community, are fine, but, to be effective, the conclusions must be printed and mailed home to all parents, since those needing this exchange of ideas most will not be present.

Active prevention of delinquency among teenagers calls for an additional effort on the part of taxpayers to provide the extra personnel and services to counsel with and educate parents when the first symptoms are detected in the youngster, but it would be worth it.

Summary of the presentation made by MRS. C. W. DETJEN

THERE are three general areas of approach that school and home can use in trying to solve the delinquency problems of some youth. There are many more, some of the most important being in the pre-school and elementary period, but, in as much as we are addressing secondary principals, I shall confine myself to those three I consider most pertinent to high-school youth. They are (1) seeking home co-operation by school administrators, (2) encouraging youth to seek parent interest and advice, (3) including parents in school planning. These are general I know, but we cannot here, today, expect to solve your specific problems. If you have delinquency problems in your school, it may help to take an over-all view of the situation.

1. *Seeking home co-operation.* Many, many secondary administrators do ask for and get good support from the home, but there are still too many who feel that they do not want or need parents cluttering up the school. Parents have definitely told me of asking their high-school principal if they could organize a PTA and of being told by him that there was no need for one or, frankly, that he did not want an organization. If you are guilty of this technique, you have shut the door on home-school co-operation. It is true that parents can get in your hair if a *good* parent group is not formed. Here again is where you play an important role. You are an educator and administrator, trained in working with youth and adults. Make sure that the organization gets off to a good start by stating clearly what you want them to do. How can this help with delinquency problems? Parents know only those youth in their homes, but you have an over-all view. You can see the trouble many times long before it is real trouble. You can discern community-home weaknesses, community needs. If you have a parent organization, you can utilize its programs to improve parent psychology and to meet community needs. Ask your community to organize a high school Parent-Teachers Association—don't wait for them to approach you.

Mrs. C. W. Detjen is Chairman of High School Service of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, Webster Groves, Missouri.

2. *Encouraging youth to seek parent interest and advice.* This is the age when youth is anxious to try its wings, when it wants to be an important member of its own age group, and, in fear of group disapproval, tries hard to ignore its parents. If the secondary-school principal also wants to avoid parents, except when delinquency problems arise, parents feel that the door has not only been slammed in their face but that a chair has also been placed against it to hold it shut. On the other hand, if the principal, through conversation and attitude, shows youth that parents should be consulted, that together home, school, and youth can solve many problems, he will have taken a big step toward solving delinquency problems before they arise. A principal can encourage his student council to work closely with the PTA. He can suggest to the PTA that they have a representative of the student council on their executive committee. He can encourage the student council to let the parents know problems that concern home and community living.

3. *Including parent in school planning.* Certainly you are the ones, along with the school board, who determine what shall be taught and how it shall be taught. But parents should be consulted as to what they believe their children want and need in the way of education. Drop-outs in high school are a major problem of both school administrators and parents. Many times a youth drops out because he has definite ideas of what he wants to become and he feels that his school is not providing him with knowledge that will help him achieve his goal. It may be true that the community may not have seen fit to provide you with sufficient funds to have a varied curriculum. This is all the more reason why the people of the community should be consulted. Let them know the costs, teacher shortages, teachers salaries in their community. They may have felt that guidance directors and counselors were a waste of money. Show them how guidance of youth may prevent drop-outs.

Summary of the presentation made by ALVA R. DITTRICK

TO CONTINUE our consideration of the problem of delinquency, this presentation will be directed to an area that may be readily identified. Each year more than three hundred thousand youth are brought to the attention of juvenile courts throughout the country. The number probably represents slightly more than two per cent of all youth. Of this group, less than ten per cent is committed to institutions or training schools. The vast majority of the cases are placed on probation, adjusted locally, or dismissed to parents. It is apparent that the local community carries major responsibility for the treatment and supervision of youth who have been guilty of delinquent acts.

Alva R. Dittrick is Principal of the John Adams High School in Cleveland, Ohio.

In the area of prevention the school occupies a strategic position for identifying the early symptoms of delinquent conduct. Our professional association and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers have consistently provided leadership in defining the role of the school, providing research and encouraging communication through which experiences are shared. Generally, the major responsibility for youth who have been adjudged delinquent rests with the court, police, welfare agencies, or training schools. While many of us believe that the school may play a substantial role when youth return to the community on probation or parole, an interesting and provocative point of view has been expressed by Mrs. Agnes Meyer, in an article written for the *Atlantic Magazine*, in March 1954. She stated, "It is high time that we make up our minds what the public schools can and cannot do—most teachers in their crowded classes are expected to cope with maladjusted children ranging from slow learners to the subnormal, from those who are neurotic or suffer from other serious emotional disturbances to those who have already committed serious offenses."

This hard core of our delinquency problem is a cause of grave apprehension among us. There is an ever present hazard that these youth may be a corrupting influence among marginal groups in the school or community. At the same time, there is always the hope that our increasing knowledge of human conduct and mental health will provide care and treatment that will result in successful rehabilitation and reclamation of this human resource. Fulfillment of this hope depends upon the efficient administration of the system of probation and parole that has been a recognized pattern of our courts and institutions.

Chief Justice Warren in speaking at the National Conference on Probation and Parole last year stated, "Parole is so little understood and reluctantly accepted." At the same conference, J. Edgar Hoover observed, "It is amazing that parole and probation do as well as they do when the apathy of the public and lack of support are considered." Effective probation or parole pre-supposes competent supervision. Too frequently the case loads of probation officers or field counselors are excessive. National standards recommend case loads not to exceed fifty. In Ohio the field counselors of the Juvenile Placement Bureau carry case loads of one hundred and forty. It is apparent that proper counseling and supervision is impossible, particularly when many officers must cover several counties in the state. This condition is probably typical of most states. Also, in the state of Ohio, it costs from \$1500-\$2200 to provide care and treatment for youth committed to the state's juvenile institutions. For those who require the services of the state's Juvenile Diagnostic Center, the cost for each youth is \$6500 per year.

Discouraging statistics, showing a persistent rise in delinquency, and growing public interest have revealed a marked demand for more definitive and firmer policies in dealing with youthful offenders. Frequent

suggestions for speedier detention, longer commitments, and more punitive treatment are not uncommon. Despite such thoughts, we know that youthful offenders, after an appropriate program of treatment, will return to their home communities for continuing reformation and rehabilitation. If these youth return to the same environment and associations that produced the anti-social conduct, a vast investment and critical services and resources will have served no purpose. Essential steps fortifying the correctional efforts of the community and state are realistic support and insistence that proper probation and parole procedures be provided.

Considering Mrs. Meyer's statement, it is probable that too frequently too much is expected of the teacher and the public schools. If the school is to provide for the individual needs of these youth and assume a part of the community responsibility in providing rehabilitation, appropriate provisions must be made. These would include sufficient health, psychological, and psychiatric services. Reasonable class sizes and facilities to permit curricular adjustment will be required. Provisions must be made for the proper preparation of teachers. There must be effective liaison and unobstructed channels of communication with allied community agencies. Needs may be studied by PTA groups for the purpose of promoting understanding and insuring the maximum public protection while providing the fullest opportunities for each youth to become a responsible citizen.

The following incident occurred some weeks ago in a suburban community. Nine boys appeared before the Juvenile Court on a charge of breaking windows in two school buildings. The cost of the damage was \$450. Evidence revealed no doubt of guilt. Three boys found guilty of actually breaking the windows were ordered to pay damages. The school administration subsequently imposed certain social restrictions for the remainder of the semester upon all nine of the gang. At a recent meeting of the board of education, a delegation of seventy parents protested the action of school officials declaring these boys were being treated like juvenile delinquents. Such over-protection and an adult example of attempting to pressure responsible officials to rescind carefully considered disciplinary measures scarcely improve the attitudes of youth nor reinforce the moral tone of the community.

To accomplish the reduction of delinquency on the part of some teenagers, there must be the fullest cooperation between home and school. There must be understanding.

In conclusion this presentation seeks to emphasize two major points. *First*, that delinquent youth will be returned to the local community and effective administration of probation and parole is essential in reducing delinquency. *Secondly*, if the school is to accept a major role in providing rehabilitation services for these young people, it must be given appropriate tools with which to work.

WHAT ARE SOME PROMISING ADMINISTRATIVE PRACTICES IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: C. W. Hemmer, Principal, Julia E. Test Junior High School,
Richmond, Indiana

DISCUSSANTS:

H. Ray Miller, Principal, Fort Dodge Junior High School, Fort Dodge,
Iowa

Gerald Gribble, Principal, Great Bend Junior High School, Great Bend,
Kansas

Summary of the presentation made by E. N. LITTLETON

Developing a Student Teaching Program

MY EXPERIENCE with student teaching programs at Ohio State and Bowling Green State Universities has been that the schools receiving the student teachers have little or nothing to do with the setting up of the program. The university does that, and we adjust our part of the training to fit the situation. Assuming that this condition holds true generally, my discussion will be concerned mostly with what the receiving school can do about it.

The school that trains student teachers needs a faculty of well-trained and experienced people. Otherwise, it is a case of the blind leading the blind. Periodically, some time in faculty meetings needs to be given over to the discussion of the handling of student teachers—what shall be demanded of them in the way of lesson plans, collateral reading, assistance with school activities, visitation of classes in other departments, *etc.* Unless the demands are rather uniform, some supervising teachers will get the reputation of being "easy" and others "tough," and the assigning at the university will be confronted with requests from prospective student teachers to be assigned to certain teachers and objections to being assigned to others.

(All teachers in our system are employed as supervising teachers and may be assigned student teachers at any time they are needed. Currently some teachers in the fields of science and mathematics are without student teachers because of the scarcity of college students preparing to teach in those fields. The university subsidizes the program to the extent of about \$750 per teacher per year for every teacher in the system. A publication by our state department of education rates our district as sixth among the twelve hundred odd districts in the state in the academic and professional preparation of its teachers.)

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One continuous task connected with any large-scale student teaching program is keeping the parents of the "practiced-on" pupils satisfied. Some parents think their children are handicapped by being taught to such a large extent by student teachers. We use two approaches to the solution of this problem, pointing out to the parent (1) that standardized achievement tests show our pupils to be up to, or somewhat above, the norms established for their grades; and (2) that we believe the subsidy granted by the university enables us to employ enough better supervising teachers than we could employ without it, that pupils are getting at least as good teaching as they would get without student teachers.

The student teachers start off with an orientation period consisting of:

(1) Observation of classes of her own supervising teacher and other teachers in that subject matter field;

(2) Conferences with the supervising teacher;

(3) A group conference with the principal, in which the school's philosophy, practices, and procedures are outlined. The student teacher learns at the outset that the procedures he is to follow in such matters as handling discipline cases, smoking, parking, and the use of faculty rest rooms and "coffee corner" are matters of school policy and not merely the whim of his particular supervising teacher.

The student teacher's induction into the teaching process is gradual. He starts by taking attendance, learning the names of pupils, studying the permanent records and background of the pupils he is to teach, and eventually takes over the class instruction of two classes. Toward the end of his student teaching period, he assumes the full daily load of his supervising teacher.

Previous to his full-time teaching period, the student teacher is given related duties such as grading papers, putting assignments or other material on the blackboard or the bulletin board, doing assigned professional reading, assisting with school activities, giving individual help to pupils needing assistance, observing and eventually taking over a study hall, sitting in on conferences with parents, *etc.* Our university once prepared a list of fifty-four things a student teacher might profitably do besides teaching classes.

In our case the student teacher is given a full semester for his practice teaching, free from all university demands except for a two-hour seminar one night each week. After a few days of preparation at the university, he comes to our school full-time until the last two or three weeks of the semester, when he is sent to some other school in the area in order to give him variety of experience. By this time he has served his apprenticeship, and if he possesses a good personality, academic preparation and ambition, he should be able to go out and do a reasonably good job of teaching his share of the nation's children.

Summary of the presentation made by ROY H. DUNGAN

Orienting New Teachers

IT IS generally accepted by the majority of educators that the orientation of new teachers is an important factor bearing upon the ultimate success of the educational program. Each fall, when school opens, a large number of new teachers start their jobs for the first time. These teachers are concerned with many problems as they approach their new positions. No attempt will be made at this time to enumerate the many possible types of problems faced by new teachers. Instead, let us look to a group of new teachers for their evaluation of some orientation practices.

During the past few years it has been my pleasure to contact several hundred new teachers in Pennsylvania in connection with a research study related to the orientation and adjustment of new and beginning teachers. It might be of interest to review a few of the findings from this study.

A representative sampling of over two hundred new teachers in Pennsylvania revealed that, in their judgment, the most informative and reliable source of information was that obtained during an interview or conference with their building principal. They felt that during these meetings questions were answered on the spot, and the advice given was both authoritative and confidential.

Ranking second as a valuable source of information was the teachers' handbook. They consider it a source always available, an accurate source, containing material that is clear and concise, and, as one new teacher said, "The handbook is a way of checking on one's self." The third agency mentioned by these teachers as being of extreme value in their orientation was the faculty meeting. Some reasons stated were as follows: the faculty meeting gave the opportunity to discuss problems, problems were often brought to light that they had not yet encountered, and, as one new junior high teacher mentioned, "You hear the problems of others and may get the solution to yours."

Now, let us look at some agencies mentioned as being least effective in their orientation. Leading the list is the faculty meeting. Some felt that such meetings were too time consuming on subjects irrelevant to grade or subject. Others stated that young teachers are reluctant to participate in discussion, or that the agenda of the faculty meeting was often too varied and not specific enough. Others felt that meetings held after school were resented by teachers because they were tired and not apt to participate in the meeting.

An interesting point to consider here is that the faculty meeting was mentioned as being one of the most effective aids to new teachers, and also as one of the least effective. This might indicate that in many schools

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the faculty meeting is being utilized in a positive manner to aid new teachers as well as other faculty members. Yet, in other schools, an examination of the faculty meeting in light of the criticisms of these new teachers might be in order.

Rated as the second least effective practice was that of being helped by fellow teachers. Some of the reasons are as follows: other teachers were usually too busy themselves to offer assistance, different teachers usually interpret each problem in a different manner, and fellow teachers may be biased in their viewpoints. The third least effective agency reported was letters from supervisors. Some felt that these letters offer no opportunity for discussion. Also, letters may be too general at a time when new teachers are in need of specific statements to which to cling.

Now to shift from the opinions of new teachers to a brief discussion of two techniques that may be of value in orienting new teachers. The first is the "team approach" utilized with teachers sponsored by the Experimental Program in Teacher Education of Temple University in Philadelphia, and supported by a grant from the Fund for the Advancement of Education. Each teacher participating in this program, and teaching in or around Philadelphia, is assigned to a team consisting of two or three experienced teachers. Meetings are held every week, and the team remains as a unit for a year or more. The principal purpose of the team is to provide a group of a few experienced teachers with whom the new teacher works, and to whom he can go for guidance. This team approach is now being adapted for use with all new teachers in many schools in southeastern Pennsylvania.

The other promising technique is one used in the Ambler Joint Schools. The supervising principal schedules periodic meetings for all teachers having less than three years of teaching experience. Informal discussions are held on such topics as: classroom management, grading, discipline, clerical duties required of teachers. A summary of each meeting is transcribed and every teacher on the faculty receives a copy. New teachers in these schools indicate that these meetings are most helpful and informative.

Since this topic is about new teachers, a fitting close should include a statement to them. The following statement was taken from a questionnaire returned by a new teacher from York County, who had this advice for his associates, "Take the cotton out of your ears, put it in your mouth, and let only sensible questions remove it."

Summary of the presentation made by J. A. RICHARDS

Teaching Homebound Youth by Telephone

FIFTEEN years ago a small boy in Newton, Iowa, was "born" again during the eleventh year of his life. Bobby was a victim of polio. Bed-ridden almost since infancy, this frail lad had never been to school. He had never known what it is to romp and play like a normal child. He had never known the adventure and excitement that the dawn of each new day unfolds in the life of a small boy. Except for the few hours a week of visits by a home teacher, occasional visits from relatives and friends, Bobby's life was a dreary and despondent one. Long hours were spent staring at the four walls of his bedroom.

One day W. A. Winterstein, a progressive and sympathetic official of the Iowa Department of Public Instruction, hit upon an idea which changed Bobby's life and opened up new vistas in the education of homebound and hospitalized children. It involved the adaption of an implied voice intercom system such as is ordinarily used in business offices. One unit is installed at the bedside of the homebound child. A standard private telephone line connects this unit to an amplifier and a similar portable intercom unit is placed in a classroom many blocks, or miles, away. Through it the child hears all that goes on in the distant classroom. He hears the teacher's voice and the recitations of every child in the class. Similarly, by a flick of a switch the voice of the shut-in is carried from his bedside to the classroom to be heard by his teachers and classmates. Thus, the homebound child can listen, talk, and even participate in classroom discussions. Between periods a classmate carries the portable unit to the next class.

This new experience gave Bobby a new lease on life, a new interest in his school work, and awakened in him the important sense of belonging to a group. Social contact with other children his own age and interests was a marvelous stimulant.

Since its inception in Iowa, it is now being used in over thirty states. More than 2,000 children have received part or all of their education through this service, which is now available through the telephone companies of the Bell system. The increased acceptance of this method, notwithstanding war-born telephone line shortages, proves its educational and psychological values in supplementing the usual few hours of home instruction with daily two-way contact and participation with other children in a regular class.

Since the shut-in requires a reasonable amount of personal contact and supervision, the method is recommended as a supplement and not as a substitute for the home teacher. However, where there is a critical short-

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age of qualified home tutors, the number of hours per week can be reduced. Personal supervision where necessary can be provided for by the classroom teachers, who can make after-school visits, for which they might receive extra compensation. Nor is this method advanced as a substitute for participation in an actual classroom situation. However, for shut-ins who cannot be transported, or where special classes for handicapped children do not exist, the telephone teaching method offers near-to-normal participation in regular classes.

A recent survey of over one hundred such installations points up some interesting facts: Nine years of age or an achievement level of the fourth grade is a recommended minimum. While many slow learners with I.Q.'s of over 85 were able to make satisfactory progress, the achievement of brighter and more mature children is correspondingly higher.

This method is being used for a wide variety of cardiac, orthopedic, muscular, fracture, and tubercular cases—in fact, for any child of average intelligence who can hear, see, articulate, hold a pencil, and manipulate a switch. Doctors interviewed acclaim the psychological and therapeutic values. Many state that it has hastened recovery by stimulating social and educational interests.

In view of the visual limitations, teachers must see that visual situations are described, either by herself or the other children. Visual and written material, and chalkboard work planned in advance, must be transmitted by the home teacher or a neighboring child. Science and mathematics are being successfully taught *via* telephone. Teachers report that little or no change in classroom technique is necessary. Marked benefits accrue to the rest of the class, including improved behavior, diction, a sense of responsibility. Class students learn better by helping to teach the shut-in which compensates for the little extra effort involved.

The possibility that parents or visitors "listening in" might misunderstand a normal disciplinary situation can be easily eliminated. An understanding between the school and home that the child will be placed in a separate room during classroom hours assures the teacher of privacy and shields the child from household disturbances.

Depending on the distance and the number of classroom connections involved, the per-pupil cost may range from \$13.00 to \$25.00 per month. Thus, for little more than the cost of an extra hour or two of home instruction per week, the child receives a full *twenty-five-hour* week of school participation embracing the full curriculum. More than twenty-five states have approved this method for state-aid reimbursement; and in many parts of the country, local educational, civic, and social service organizations have contributed toward its cost.

Educators, psychologists, and physicians alike have come to recognize the educational, psychological, and spiritual values that contribute so much to the homebound child's eventual recovery. Thanks to this miracle of modern science the classroom has indeed been brought to the bedside of the homebound child.

Summary of the presentation made by EVELYN C. THORNTON

The Role of the School Library in the Curriculum

I LIKE to think of the library as an integral and indispensable part of a good school system, as a coordinating center—a part of the whole school—designed to meet the needs of pupil and teacher, curriculum and community. I like to think of it as a center for learning materials—well-selected collections which stimulate and expand pupil interest, make teaching a rewarding responsibility, and provide information for establishing patterns of living which will build for inner security and responsible citizenship.

Because a major function of the school library is curriculum enrichment, *materials which give the body and substance to the school curriculum are provided and coordinated in the library.* While the librarian is chiefly responsible for the selection of materials, every person in the school is encouraged to cooperate. Opportunity for a cooperative system of selection is made by providing basic tools of selection and by giving guiding principles based on the needs, abilities, and interests of girls and boys as well as on the objectives of the curriculum. This cooperative spirit breaks down the feeling of ownership on the part of individuals and replaces it with the spirit of "*our library*"—a privilege and a responsibility. In this kind of atmosphere, a library can provide the best kind of service and be an integral part of the school's curriculum. The materials provided and coordinated in the library consist of a wide variety of instructional materials for enriching the curriculum—books; periodicals; pictures and pamphlets; films, filmstrips, and slides; maps and globes; recordings, discs, and tapes; displays, exhibits, and models.

The materials provided and coordinated in the library not only consist of many types of instructional materials suited to each grade level, but also of others suitable to the needs, interests, and abilities of those served by the library. Thus, provision is made for materials which increase the pupil's knowledge in various subject fields and which aid the teacher in planning instructional activities—real curriculum enrichment.

The library contributes to the professional growth of teachers by keeping them informed about types of new materials for curriculum enrichment, current professional articles, and new books; by securing materials for those taking in-service training, extension courses, or classes in colleges or universities. This is accomplished through a professional bulletin; professional shelves in the faculty lounge; curriculum displays; faculty teas, at which time materials are displayed; departmental meetings where classroom work and materials are discussed.

Evelyn C. Thornton is Supervisor of Libraries in the Arlington County Public Schools, Arlington, Virginia.

Adequate instruction in the use of the library and its materials is provided. Both teacher and librarian share the responsibility of planning so that all pupils have opportunities to acquire library skills through experiences related to other learning situations. In today's school where the emphasis is on problem solving and shared experiences, the librarian is a cooperating teacher, a materials specialist, planning and working with the classroom teacher to put action and meaning into materials and guide girls and boys in developing desirable library skills.

The library, in attempting to attain educational aims and objectives, performs other functions. *It is responsive to curriculum changes and changes in teaching methods and classroom practices.* No longer does it serve as a storeroom for materials, but rather as a workroom for pupils, teacher, and librarian, making provisions for exploratory experiences, audio-visual learning, reports and discussions, and pupil-teacher evaluations. It contributes to the reading program and gives informal guidance. In fact, it is integrated with all phases of the instructional program of the school. Thus, it reflects the changing conceptions of service to all within the school and exerts every effort to meet the needs of a changing curriculum.

In the democratic administration of the library, *the pupils play a remarkable role in sharing responsibilities and giving service.* Thus, the library in its program for student assistants *provides opportunities for girls and boys to help with many routine and certain creative duties* so that they can put into practice ideals of social conduct and civic obligation.

We believe that a good library is essential for a well-planned instructional program, that a good library can be the central teaching and service agency of a school where emphasis is on the proper use of all kinds of materials and where opportunities are provided for cultural and social experience that enrich the lives of girls and boys.

If we believe that a good library is essential, we would also agree that there should be adequate quarters designed specifically to provide for the greatest possible development of girls and boys; a wide variety of materials to meet the needs and interests of all served by the library; and an adequate personnel, both clerical and professional. The professional should be qualified both as librarian and teacher with security, vision, and, most of all, faith in young people.

HOW CAN THE SUPERVISORY RESPONSIBILITY OF THE PRINCIPAL BECOME MAXIMALLY EFFECTIVE?

CHAIRMAN: *B. G. Woods*, Associate Professor of Education, Southern Methodist University, Dallas, Texas

DISCUSSANTS:

Lester R. Aldrich, Principal, Peterborough High School, Peterborough, New Hampshire

Allen C. Harman, Assistant Superintendent, Montgomery County Schools, Norristown, Pennsylvania

Summary of the presentation made by **FRANK N. PHILPOT**

A FEW weeks ago two teachers were discussing plans for a program they were preparing. "Do you suppose we will be able to finish during the period in which the auditorium is assigned to us?" one of them asked.

"Oh, we must not go over the time. Last year when we had the other principal I didn't think what we did mattered much, but this year I wouldn't think of taking an unfair share of the time."

Now the new principal had not told the teachers that they must not go over time and disrupt the schedule. He had been able to create a climate of co-operation and a business-like atmosphere which the teachers had absorbed.

This "climate" is the most important aspect of supervision. Unlike the climate of the earth around us, it cannot be felt, but it can none the less be "sensed." By and large the quality of the supervision determines the quality of the instructional program. This is not to say that teachers are so lax as to require supervision, but the principal can provide an atmosphere—a climate if you please, in which good instructional practices flourish. By his very appreciation of the good and his tactful displeasure at the lax and the poor, the principal sets the tone for the entire school. We cannot exactly define a climate of supervision, but let us try to look at some of the characteristics which make it a *good* climate.

1. This climate requires first of all the administrative detail of getting into the classrooms. You may wish to shout, "Isn't that obvious?" But I have heard many a principal say, "Next semester I hope to get into some of the classrooms." Ten to one, that principal considers himself a good supervisor. You might say, "No visits, no supervision." Visits should be made often enough and informally enough that strain is eliminated as well as the thought of checking up.

2. The maximum climate of supervision is permissive in that teachers feel free to deviate from the established path and even the most timid feel encouraged to make a contribution to the group.

Frank N. Philpot is Director of Secondary Education, State Department of Education, Montgomery, Alabama.

3. It is positive rather than negative in effect. One principal said that he had decided that he should ask himself periodically, "Do I prow around looking for *problems* or for *projects*?" That question asked often enough in the mind of the principal will put the atmosphere of a school on a positive basis.

4. The climate is controlled to a large extent by the fact that the supervising principal is *interested*. He took time to comment on the fact that the teacher had chosen a low, fat Christmas tree that was on the level with the eyes of small children, the door decoration was especially lovely, and he enjoyed the dramatization so much that he would like to be invited to the next one. He *could* have ignored the fat Christmas tree and the lovely door and been too busy to come to the dramatization, you know.

5. This wholesome climate of supervision provides motivation for growth. This is a big order and must be undertaken as a long-term project. This includes the constant stimulation to read professionally and the enthusiastic sharing of articles with the attitude that "I enjoyed this so much that I am certain you will also." Motivation for growth also includes the inspiration to work hard. No staff will work harder than its chief administrator. People enjoy working if they feel that their efforts have been appreciated.

6. The regulator of this climate will seek to provide as nearly optimum physical conditions as he can within the limit of his ability. If the physical conditions are not desirable, the teachers must know that it is not the result of neglect or carelessness. Each teacher must feel that "he has done his best to provide for my welfare."

7. This climate is made up of humility. The supervising principal never insists that his own ideas about teaching are the correct ones. He does not regard himself as the person to be "up front." Within the limits of time he is available to work with small groups and with individuals and he encourages the use of every available resource person.

8. The regulator of this climate must provide the mechanics by which a staff can organize around a program of instruction. In it the classrooms become distinctive and reflect the work and activities carried on there. Just as homes reflect the personality and taste of the owners, classrooms come to reflect the age group, the work and the talents of the occupants of the room.

9. This climate makes for warm human relationships. There is an atmosphere of mutual loyalty and the feeling that "We are all on the same team."

10. This permissive climate recognizes the fact that democracy is slow-moving and permits each person to make his own mistakes. I would like to leave you with the thought that the principal who creates a climate in which the growth of teachers and pupils flourishes is the one who strives for democracy, knowing full well that he will never completely achieve it.

Summary of the presentation made by MARY A. SHEEHAN

A HIGH-SCHOOL principal's job today involves so many and such varied responsibilities that it has become one of the most baffling, fascinating, and challenging positions in the whole field of education. It was a man of long experience who advised a neophyte: "Put your shoulder to the wheel, keep your ear to the ground, get your eye on the ball, and you'll come through all right!" He might have added, "Also keep your nose to the grindstone." But just try to work that way! Again it was the older principal who topped off his advice with a final word: "Remember—the principal who laughs, lasts."

The duties of a principal are multitudinous as any job analysis will show. If he is to meet his obligations squarely, he must set up a priority among them lest he find himself completely enmeshed in the routine functions of his office. Certainly among the top priorities for every principal will be service to boys and girls through teachers—helping to select them, and then providing to each as great an opportunity as possible for all-round growth and development looking toward the most constructive contribution each can make in the school. Is it too strong a statement to say that the most important duty of a principal is to help his teachers to succeed? And that, if a teacher does not succeed, then the principal must have the courage supported by ample data not to keep him forever? However, if a teacher fails to develop to his fullest potential, then the principal, too, has failed unless his every resource has been used. Thus, the supervisory responsibility is a very critical part of his work. How can it become maximally effective?

The old concept of supervision as inspection, authority, and fault finding is as obsolete as a dodo. Democratic educational leadership with co-operative endeavor based on mutual respect and understanding has taken its place. Teachers and principals belong to the same profession, have the same basic teacher certification, work toward common goals. The difference is largely that of responsibility. Therefore, the supervisory program begins with respect for the integrity of the individual teacher and is "the means whereby the entire school organization is stimulated to become constantly sensitive to changing needs and stimulated also to have the courage and initiative to develop better ways of meeting the needs." (William E. Arnold.) Effective supervision starts with a reminder to ourselves that, while we are always telling our teachers that what they do will affect children eternally for good or ill, so what we do for teachers will affect them likewise.

A fair portion of a principal's time is devoted to supervision *directly* through regularly scheduled professional meetings, individual conferences, and classroom visitation; *indirectly* through making professional

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books available, through encouragement to continue study, through providing information on professional opportunities as summer fellowships, *etc.*

SUPERVISION THROUGH PROFESSIONAL MEETINGS

Teachers are an unwilling captive audience in too many so-called professional meetings. This is not due to their lack of interest in educational matters, but rather to poorly organized, long-winded, and purposeless sessions. Faculty, staff, and department meetings are a powerful instrument for educational growth and development, but will have meaning only if the teachers find value in them. Anyone who has been part of a captive audience has learned through experience some of the "Do's" and "Don'ts" for meetings of teachers.

The positive guiding principles, the "Do's," would seem to include the following:

1. Have a genuine purpose in every meeting. Devote at least half the time to a professional program that will be interesting, instructive, and challenging.
2. Post a schedule of dates of meetings at the beginning of the school year so teachers will know what is ahead and on what they can plan.
3. Hold to a definite time for opening and closing the meeting. All should close at a regularly scheduled time.
4. Plan the meetings democratically and purposefully with a committee of teachers in charge.
5. Have as many teachers as possible present matters of common interest.
6. Encourage discussion. Teachers will speak freely if they know there is not a penalty attached; primarily, that the meeting will not be lengthened because they have talked.
7. Invite student officers to speak to the faculty whenever they desire teacher interest and help on a special project.
8. Plan the agenda carefully and always write it.
9. Try to have both inspiration and information in the meetings—and a cup of coffee at least occasionally.
10. Check frequently and informally with teachers to evaluate the meetings.
11. Take inventory on this year's meetings. Which were most worth while? What was accomplished?

The negative guiding principles, the "Don'ts," might include three:

1. Don't make announcements that might better be put in a bulletin.
2. Don't be a goop and use up all the meeting time with your own talking. Let the teachers have their say.
3. Don't reject the opinion of a teacher who disagrees with you. Maybe his opinion is wiser.

Faculty Meetings

Some fine faculty meetings can be planned around educational motion pictures such as those produced by the National Education Association. They can be quite provocative. A series of meetings might be set up on a workshop basis; *e.g.*, to prepare a teacher's handbook. Topics for discussion or for workshop and action might be: teaching how to study; inter-

pretation of standardized tests; helping every boy and girl to achieve a feeling of "belonging"; normal and spiritual values in action; *etc.*

Faculty meetings with the near look and the far vision can build morale and esprit de corps, provide unity of purpose, and knit the members of the faculty into a team that can work harmoniously and effectively together.

Staff Meetings

Staff meetings have a place in an adequate plan of supervision. The personnel of the group will vary with the philosophy and size of the school, but would include the principal, the vice-principal, and, if they are available, the boys' and the girls' adviser, the psychologist, the librarian, and subject field department heads or department representatives. This group which is not large could well serve as the policy making body of the school and consider any matter important to the welfare and progress of pupils and teachers, such as planning a program for the intellectually gifted, a program for slow learners, drop-outs, discipline, *etc.* Recommendations and suggested policy should be discussed with the entire faculty. Because department heads are usually charged with supervising teachers in their departments, techniques of class visitation, of reporting on visits, and of follow-up conferences can be discussed and common standards set.

Department Meetings

Department meetings are organized under the leadership of chairmen or department heads for the purpose of professional and personal growth of teachers in their subject fields. Each department should choose some specific area for improvement each year. An analysis of report card ratings at each marking period by subjects and teachers might be regular procedure for department meetings. The teachers themselves can see where the inequities are and can seek ways to correct them.

Professional books, new materials, visual aids, study coach, or any matter proposed by the group may be discussed and action taken.

New Teacher Meetings

Teachers new to the school are a special concern of the principal. They need information, encouragement, and confidence. Assigning to each new teacher an experienced teacher to serve as a helping big brother or sister, getting all the new teachers together at times to give them opportunity to talk and ask their questions over a cup of coffee, keeping a welcoming office door, visits to their classes, and individual conferences are an essential part of a supervisory program.

SUPERVISION AND THE INDIVIDUAL

Any discussion of effective supervision would be incomplete without a plan of classroom visitation. In practice, this is only too often left in the realm of good intentions, with principals expecting to get around to visit classes, but not finding the time. Yet nothing will pay greater

dividends to teachers and thus to pupils than observation of teaching, provided that it results in genuine help and inspiration. This means conference regarding the visit and mutually free discussion.

MAXIMALLY EFFECTIVE SUPERVISION

There are many more ways of effective supervision, but time limits their discussion. Mention, however should be made of rating devices which are actually practical standards of excellence. Teachers might rate themselves, the principal might do likewise, then discuss the evaluation in conference with each teacher concerned. There is need of consciously planning for the know-how of the fine, experienced teachers to rub off on the beginners whose eagerness in turn feeds the flame of enthusiasm of the experienced. Professional books should have a place in the library book order. The principal should take time to write a note of commendation to the teacher when something special has been well done. Opportunities for growth of teachers through summer study on fellowships, attendance at conventions, *etc.*, should be sought. And, finally, there is the importance of example. We say to teachers: "When your pupils come to school in the morning, are they glad they are going to your room?" Likewise a principal should ask: "Are teachers glad they are coming to a school he heads?"

In conclusion, a warning should be sounded. Too much—and how much is too much?—and purposeless supervision will drive teachers out of the profession. In an attempt sometime ago to define competence, the story was told about Roger's report card. The first time the teacher wrote, "Trying." The second time she said, "Still trying." His mother was pleased until the third report which read "Still very trying." And perhaps no one is more trying to his teachers than a principal who would seek to achieve maximally effective supervision by leaving the "vision" out and considering himself "super," the whole team, not just a member of it.

WHAT ARE DESIRABLE CURRICULUM CHANGES IN THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *Arthur C. Hearn*, Associate Professor of Education, University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon

DISCUSSANTS:

O. Meredith Parry, Principal, Brattleboro High School, Brattleboro, Vermont

C. Benton Manley, Director of Secondary Education, Public Schools, Springfield, Missouri

Summary of the presentation made by WILLIAM H. BRISTOW

THE common school of the United States was first the elementary school, then the junior high school. We enroll practically all boys and girls through the 9-year period and a large share get into the senior high school. Despite our boast, many still fall by the way. Senior high schools have only partially adapted themselves to the needs and capacities of "all American youth." Nor is it clear that—with present dispositions, resources, and attitudes on the part of parents, pupils, and teachers—the senior high school, as we know it, can or will achieve the democratic ideal of "a common school."

Senior high schools are adequately serving a sizeable portion of those enrolled. For another portion, whose number is not exactly known, and who run the gamut from talented to dull, from high achievers to low achievers, and from well-adjusted to disturbed, plans and provisions are inadequate, often inappropriate, and sometimes woefully and needlessly lacking. For a third group—dropouts, behavior cases, non-readers, and mentally retarded—senior high schools are only beginning to recognize and accept a responsibility, or to know what can and should be done.

The American public senior high school, open to all youth regardless of race, color, creed, economic condition, or educational status, stands today as the great symbol of American democracy. In it, more than in any other American educational institution, is exemplified the hopes and aspirations of our people. Its design must, therefore, be such that it fulfills the requirements of a *common school*. The great gaps between *expressed curriculum design* and *actual practice*, and the unconscious violation and neglect of sound principles, are and have always been a paradox in our education. It is too little recognized that teaching, while most often positive and constructive, can be for some students neutral, negative, and even destructive to individual personality as well as a waste of manpower and citizenship potential.

William H. Bristow is Director of the Bureau of Curriculum Research, Board of Education, New York City Schools, 130 West 55th Street, New York 19, New York.

Efforts to improve the curriculum have been and still are confined largely to *externa* (i.e., tracks, curriculums, special schools, units) and too little to *interna* (organization and selection of learning experiences, classroom environment, group processes, the nature of growth and development). The two principal early means of curriculum adaptation were repeating (failure) and electives (different courses). The first has been largely rejected; but the full effect of this rejection has been little considered. The second means (electives) is still the most important means of adaptation, but it is being seriously questioned because of the effect of specialization on pupils of secondary-school age.

Education for All American Youth—A Further Look (Educational Policies Commission, Washington, D. C., N.E.A., 1952, p. 28) sets forth the following clues to what the senior high school needs. The Commission says that

ALL AMERICAN YOUTH

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. Are citizens | 4. Need physical and mental health |
| 2. Are family members | 5. Must learn to earn their living |
| 3. Are products of American culture | 6. Are capable of rational thought |
| 7. Must make choices—good or bad | |

This statement, better than any other, provides us with the positive goals toward which curriculum change should direct itself. What changes can be suggested:

1. Senior high schools must become community schools, adapted to community needs, drawing from the community and giving back to it. Too many senior high schools are aloof, apart, and insulated from the community.

2. The wide gap between "academic" or general education and "vocational" education must be bridged, not by diluting one or the other, but by recognizing the specific function of each. New and bold efforts to insure that pupils at many skill levels have training for productive work through vocational courses and work-study programs are needed.

3. It is crucial that plans be developed for providing longer work and study sessions (the forty minute period is as outdated as the Model T Ford) whereby students and teachers can carry on instruction more in consonance with the modern theory of learning.

4. The core program, or some adaptation of it, should find a larger place in the secondary program. Such programs have been found of value with the very bright. They are absolutely "musts" for students whose learning program is slower paced.

5. A reassessment of subject matter content is long overdue. Changes in world interrelationships, in technology, and in communication have stepped up on us to the degree that even our familiar standard courses in such subjects as science and mathematics are under attack.

6. How teachers use the time at their disposal, and how students use their time and effort, needs to come under scrutiny. Times have changed; yet, in thousands of classrooms procedures and facilities remain substantially as they were a quarter of century ago. As an example: the mass media of communication can and should make a larger contribution to the curriculum.

7. Every senior high school, large and small, needs to make a top priority of curriculum planning. A design for any senior high school, adequate to that school, must

be forged in part in the school and in the community. This means that teachers must have time to plan together, and to plan with the community. This means a day for teachers different from that of pupils. It is only as teachers can plan together, pooling their knowledge about pupils, content, and methods, that new designs can develop to meet local needs and the needs of our times.

8. Larger programs of research are necessary to get a basis for better decision making on the complex problems facing the senior high schools. Newer designs will emerge from this research and study, much of which can be done only on the local level and must be done for each school and community.

The purpose of curriculum design is to make explicit and clear the basis upon which curriculum decisions are made or are to be made. Curriculum design can only be effective when it is considered in more than one dimension and on more than one operational level. This requires both horizontal and vertical articulation and precludes narrow curriculum development in a field, subject, or on one level without reference to other fields or levels. Curriculum design must provide a staff, individual teachers, as well as parents and students, with an understanding of their roles and responsibilities in making decisions of curriculum development.

Current attacks on education are symptoms of a deep-seated feeling that schools can and should do more than they are now doing to help our troubled world. Many critics, friendly and unfriendly, both within and outside the schools, want a return to the formal narrow curriculum of the past. That is not possible, sensible, or desirable. It is like turning the clock back on the automobile and atomic energy.

Summary of the presentation made by WALTER L. COOPER

No paper available for publication.

WHAT EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM IS NEEDED FOR THE 15TH AND 14TH YEARS?

CHAIRMAN: *Fred Ginotto*, Dean, Community College, Independence, Kansas

DISCUSSANTS:

Wilmer V. Bell, Dean, Junior College, Baltimore, Maryland

Reef V. Waldrep, Registrar, Municipal Junior College, Meridian, Mississippi

Summary of the presentation made by ARTHUR MILWARD

THE role of the community college in our society has changed radically during the past fifty years. In 1900 there were only eight private junior colleges with a total enrollment of only 100 students. In 1954-1955 there were 596 public and private institutions whose aggregate enrollment was 696,321 students. This growth is not unique, but rather it is a reflection of an upward surge in numbers of the total educational process in the United States. As our educational programs at the elementary- and secondary-school levels have been broadened sharply to meet the increasing needs of our youth, so have the junior or community colleges been quick to adapt their programs to meet the increasing educational needs of the people of the community they serve.

For the purpose of limiting this discussion, it is my desire to use community colleges with an enrollment of approximately 300 full-time students in cities of 30,000 as opposed to junior colleges in metropolitan areas. In determining a program for an institution of this type, one must keep a number of salient facts in mind. Professor Ralph R. Fields of Teachers College, Columbia University, wrote in the book *The Public Junior College* a chapter entitled "The Program Defined and Implemented." The following statements are from that chapter:

1. Junior College programs emerge from the purpose of the institution.
2. Programs reflect the individualities of the communities served; they also reflect the particular ideas of the staff.
3. Because of this breadth of purpose and the significant differences among communities and staffs, programs vary greatly.
4. The intimate participation of lay members of the community in program development is one of the most significant differences between the community-type institutions and the typical four-year college.
5. The responsibility for the program must be involved in the process of defining and improving.

Arthur Milward is Superintendent of the Mt. Vernon Township High School and Community College in Mt. Vernon, Illinois.

From these statements at least two very important facts emerge. One is that the program of a community college reflects the thinking of the staff. The second is that this program reflects the educational needs of the people of the community. If it is a community college in the true meaning of the word, it must develop a program peculiar to that community—a program which adequately meets the various educational, vocational, and cultural needs of that community.

To develop a program successfully for a particular community college, one needs to have knowledge concerning many segments of the community. To secure such knowledge or information, it becomes necessary to have readily available the results of various community surveys. Occupational surveys, business and industrial surveys, labor surveys, level of income surveys, surveys which give a picture of the educational level and cultural background of the people—all of these and more are necessary if a vital program is to be developed which will meet the educational needs of the people. Simply, it means that every segment of the community must be explored completely.

Since this is the first year of operation for the Mt. Vernon Community College, perhaps it would be timely to discuss the philosophy and the aims of this institution. These were developed by a faculty-lay committee after a careful analysis of the community had been made.

PHILOSOPHY

One of the fundamentals upon which our democracy is founded is that every individual has a God-given right to attain the highest growth compatible with his abilities, his interests, and his endeavors. One cannot, however, have rights without having obligations. It is the duty of the schools not only to provide the opportunity for growth to all members of the community, but also to inculcate an understanding of responsibilities of democratic citizenship.

In the growing complexity of our present civilization, four years of secondary education are often not enough preparation for life. The opportunities for vocational preparation, for general education, and for citizenship understanding inherent in the junior college are a necessary addition to the public school system if equal rights are to be provided for all.

Education is a continuous process. It begins with birth and ends only with death. The adults of our communities have as much right to expect opportunities for educational growth as do the youth. Only through the full cooperation and understanding of the community and through the provision of educational opportunities to all can the potential development of the community be realized.

In a new-born institution it would be unwise to expect complete realization of all aims from the beginning. The most adequate growth can be accomplished by starting with the familiar and the traditional and

moving toward a program of service consistent with the abilities of the instructional staff and the understanding of the community.

AIMS

It is the aim of the Mt. Vernon Community College to further the educational opportunities of the citizens of this area by:

1. Providing the first and second years of liberal arts and pre-professional training for those who wish to transfer to other institutions.
2. Providing terminal education in business, general and technical fields for those wanting such training.
3. Expanding the adult evening classes to meet the cultural, vocational, and avocational needs of the community.
4. Serving as a cultural center for the community by providing resource personnel and assistance in community projects.

Although a large majority of entering freshmen indicate that they are planning to transfer to a four-year college at the end of two years, studies show that a rather small number do continue at four-year schools. As a result of this situation, community colleges must by necessity develop terminal courses one and two years in length. Courses in technical and semi-technical fields which lead to proficiencies in various technical skills needed in the numerous businesses and industries of the area must become an integral part of the educational program of the college.

The community colleges offer a splendid opportunity to adults in the community who desire to pursue hobbies or to improve themselves culturally. Classes in ceramics, painting, sketching, and the like prove highly successful at the community college level. Community orchestras and choruses which tend to serve the cultural needs of the community can be organized and become a vital segment of the college program.

As the foregoing discussion indicates, the name "community" is the clue to this problem of programing the thirteenth and fourteenth years. If the educational needs of the community are determined, then needs become the center around which the educational program is structured. As education itself is a continuous process, so is the program of the community college a continuous process. Constant evaluations of the program must be made. As needs change, the elimination and the addition of various courses become a necessary function of those vested with the responsibility for the operation of a community college. The name "community" implies that all the people are concerned. If this is true, the community college must serve all the peoples—young and old. When this has been accomplished, the educational level of the area soars and the institution is truly "community."

Summary of the presentation made by GEORGE E. MILLS

No paper available for publication.

OUTDOOR EDUCATION IN YOUR SCHOOL— WHY AND HOW?

(Arranged in co-operation with the American Association
for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation)

CHAIRMAN: *H. L. Richards*, Superintendent, Community High School,
Blue Island, Illinois

DISCUSSANTS:

Frank Wilson, Principal, Lebanon High School, Lebanon, New Hampshire

Clifford L. Netherton, Third Vice President, National Association of
Angling and Casting Clubs, Herndon, Virginia

Stanley A. Mate, National Rifle Association of America, Washington,
D. C.

Harold K. Jack, Supervisor, Health and Physical Education, Safety and
Recreation, State Board of Education, Richmond, Virginia

Summary of the presentation made by JULIAN W. SMITH

National Developments in Outdoor Education

EDUCATION in and for the outdoors is a significant present-day trend. Essentially a development in curriculum, outdoor education includes a variety of activities ranging from field trips to camping, and from teaching outdoor skills to community-wide participation in outdoor sports. The basic premises for including outdoor education in the curriculum are: (1) that some objectives of education can be achieved best in an outdoor laboratory; and (2) that people need outdoor skills in order to receive the maximum benefits from the natural environment or leisure time use. Outdoor education is a broad term; it includes those learning experiences in and for the outdoors that make use of the physical environment in achieving the goals of education. This broad concept encompasses all phases of the curriculum, including most subject matter areas and school activities related to the outdoors. Some of the patterns in outdoor education found in schools and colleges are school camping; use of school farms, forests, and gardens; field trips; use of sanctuaries, museums, and public land for instruction; rock collecting; conservation activities; shooting; casting; boating; archery; winter sports; outdoor clubs; and many others.

While these activities have implications for the entire curriculum, health, physical education, and recreation have responsibilities for teaching many of the skills, attitudes, and appreciations involved in outdoor

Julian W. Smith is Associate Professor of Outdoor Education at Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan.

education and also in giving leadership to the initiation of outdoor programs in schools and colleges. The increased availability of leisure time and the current interest in the outdoors by the American public has emphasized the need for more stress on outdoor education in secondary schools. Many of these activities such as casting, shooting, boating, archery, camping, and the like have life-long values to people. While a balanced program of all types of activities has long been recommended in achieving the objectives of education, outdoor education has not received its rightful place in the curriculum in most instances.

The American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, working through the Outdoor Education Project, is now giving impetus to a program of in-service training, interpretation, and preparation of instructional material for schools and colleges. The Project, following a well-established pattern of business-industry-education, is in cooperation with the Associated Fishing Tackle Manufacturers and Sporting Arms and Ammunition Manufacturers' Institute and is concerned with outdoor living, conservation, camping, and safety, but has special emphasis on casting, shooting, and related activities. One phase of the Project is a study of boating education in cooperation with the Outboard Boating Club of America. It is anticipated that, during the sustained effort of the Project over a period of years, many new outdoor education programs will be developed in the schools and colleges of the nation. All interested administrators and teachers are urged to participate in the Project program as it develops in the various states.

With the phenomenal growth of school camping and field experience in many states and the new interest in teaching skills needed to enjoy the out-of-doors, a revitalized curriculum in health, physical education, recreation, science, and other appropriate areas of the high-school and college programs will result.

Only by the development of an educational program geared to modern-day needs can the ever-increasing hordes of people with shortened work weeks find maximum satisfactions and better living through the outdoor resources of this country. Opportunities for outdoor living and learning are within the grasp of all schools and colleges, and such programs can become realities if all the groups and agencies concerned—Federal, state, and local—join hands. Teachers and administrators have a challenge in mobilizing all the resources in an all-out effort to develop more and better programs in outdoor education.

Summary of the presentation made by HOMER HUMPHREYS

Outdoor Education in the Secondary School

IN THIS discussion the term "outdoor education" is used to include all education conducted in the out-of-doors, as well as that teaching indoors which is directly concerned with the development of skills, attitudes, and appreciations necessary for maximum use of the outdoors for better living.

That some things can be learned best in the out-of-doors and that one needs outdoor skills to get the most from his surroundings are easily recognized as stated by Dr. Smith. Nature study, biology, agriculture, driver training, safe use of firearms, all forms of outdoor sports, and many other desirable and worth-while achievements are but a few examples of those which give the best results taught outdoors. They have significant implications for health, conservation, safety, recreation, and citizenship on the secondary-school level. Accept this as sufficient "why"—for the problem seems not so much in recognizing the value of outdoor education but in finding time and place for it. It would be difficult in the small school, at least, for separate courses to be offered in swimming, boating, shooting, archery, *etc.* as electives competing with the many offerings and requirements of the secondary school as it is now organized.

However, some of the secondary-school's program can be, and in many cases is, carried on outdoors. With sufficient planning and training of teachers and with the aid of local resource people, it would seem that much more could be done. Four ways that may be considered as possibilities of "how" to implement outdoor education are: (1) to correlate certain phases of it with conventional classes in science, mathematics, social studies, *etc.*; (2) to incorporate it into activities or school clubs; (3) to include many and varied forms of sports in the health and physical education program; and (4) to cooperate with community agencies, such as, Scouts, summer recreation program, *etc.*

There are numerous opportunities to correlate certain aspects of outdoor education with science, mathematics, social studies, and other classes. Whether or not it is recognized as an aspect of outdoor education, there are probably very few secondary schools that do not utilize the out-of-doors in the study of plant life, animal life, rocks, and soil. In many instances the study is made on location; in others, specimens are brought to the classroom or laboratory where they add color to the experiment and study. Trips to hatcheries and museums bring the printed page to life.

Vocational agriculture furnishes many opportunities for learning outdoors with such projects as forestry, farming, orchards, animal hus-

Homer Humphreys is Supervising Principal of the West Point Schools in West Point, Virginia.

bandry, conservation, and soil. In the shops many pieces of farming equipment, such as lawn furniture, speed boats and fishing boats, bird houses, and gun stocks and racks, are built or repaired.

In mathematics, problems become more realistic and their functional value more obvious if related to the concrete. When the height of a pole, tree, or tower is determined by actually measuring its shadow, or measuring a water tank to determine its capacity, there is no limit to the possibilities.

In some classes the study of maps is stimulated by planned flight over a familiar section of the country where observations made from the air can be related to maps. Properly handled such an outdoor experience has many possibilities; namely, weather influence, travel, time, global concept, and, ultimately, interest in the background of transportation and its influence on civilization and all the complicated resulting problems.

The activities program of a secondary school can provide many opportunities for education in the out-of-doors. Some of the clubs connected with such a program are photography, golf, fishing, boating, swimming, and gun. Sponsored by faculty members or properly qualified and approved local people, much of the activity is carried on in out-of-school hours. With a flexible schedule of study or library periods and physical education periods many of these special activities can be carried on during the school day.

An illustration of this is the following description of the operation of a rifle club. The same general plan could be followed for almost any other club.

This rifle club has a National Rifle Association instructor who is a local pharmacist with each Tuesday morning available for instruction. There are three 55-minute class periods in the morning. The club is divided into three groups with one group going to the Armory each period. The group to which an individual belongs is determined by his schedule. He is permitted to use his physical education period on Tuesday for this activity. If necessary, he can shift his study period or library period to physical education so that the rifle time comes from physical education time.

This instruction was started in 1952. Since that time the school has had a rifle team participating in marksmanship meets and tournaments. In 1953 the National Rifle Association Hunter Safety Short Course was given to the whole high school during physical education periods. Since that time it is given to all eighth-grade pupils as a part of physical education.

In this same school, driver education has been offered as a part of the physical education program since 1949 on the same general plan as described for the rifle club and the Hunter Safety course. Also this same school correlated flight with its social studies offerings.

Many outdoor education experiences can be promoted by the secondary school through cooperation with community agencies, such as Scouts, Red

Cross, and summer recreation program. School staff personnel and school boys and girls can aid in the instruction and training program and in the supervision of various aspects of Scout work. Many of the older boys and girls, as well as staff members, can help in Red Cross swimming classes. In some communities a physical education instructor or other persons from the school can head or help with the summer recreation program. Sharing some of the school's equipment is sometimes possible and advisable.

HOW CAN THE SCHOOL DEVELOP GOOD CITIZENSHIP THROUGH STANDARDS OF PUPIL CONDUCT?

CHAIRMAN: *J. L. Abbott*, Principal, Gardena High School, Gardena, California

DISCUSSANTS:

D. E. Weatherman, Principal, Central Junior High School, Marshalltown, Iowa

Warren L. Evenson, Principal, Central Senior High School, Fargo, North Dakota

The Reverend *Anthony I. McHale*, S.J., Headmaster, Gonzaga High School, Washington, D. C.

Summary of the presentation made by G. MASON HALL

HOW can I prove to you that we in Edmonds High School are developing good citizenship through standards of pupil conduct? What can I tell you so that it is specific and perhaps useful to you? Student, teacher, pupil, and public reaction to the question gives us much assurance; we are all proud of our school. May I quote from one of many similar editorials in our local paper: "While residents of Edmonds have been aware of the well-mannered and exemplary conduct of the Senior Class as a shining example to the underclassmen, it is the reports from cities throughout the Northwest that add much to the reputation of Edmonds High School. Comments are always in the superlatives and usually finish with 'Edmonds students are the most polite and decorous of all.'"¹

The careful selection of staff members over a period of sixteen years is the prime factor in achieving continual progress. Each new member is chosen with positive thought given to how he or she will work with and complement the present corps. The staff believes that:

¹*Edmonds Tribune-Review*

G. Mason Hall is Principal of the Edmonds Senior High School in Edmonds, Washington.

1. *All students should be well informed* in matters of course offerings, policy, customs, traditions, procedures, standards, and activities. Some of the devices used are: course offerings are explained to junior high students and teachers by the principal, counselors, and selected students from the senior high school; a carefully planned orientation program is conducted for all sophomores during the first three weeks of school—

A. The principal and vice-principal inform them on rules and regulations (we have only five).

B. Selected students chosen according to their special interests carefully explain our customs, traditions, procedures, standards, and the total field of activities.

C. The student handbook, containing all of the above mentioned items, is thoroughly studied in all sophomore English classes.

2. *Parents should be informed.* At a regularly scheduled Sophomore Parents Night, staff members are introduced. They explain all courses of study briefly and concisely; the principal explains the school philosophy and policies—this is followed by a social hour.

3. *Students should be taught to choose good leaders* (high standards are set), and those chosen should be taught to lead in a manner that brings cooperation from their fellows.

A. Prior to nominations, discussions are held in all roll rooms concerning desirable qualities of leadership.

B. Campaigns are realistic, but kept on a high plane.

C. Elected leaders are taught the responsibilities and duties of their offices.

D. At least three days prior to student council meetings, a copy of the agenda is given to each roll-room representative and group discussions are held to arrive at instructions for the representative. The day following the council meeting, each representative reads a copy of the minutes and explains why and how decisions were reached.

4. *Girls, in the main, set the social standards for the school.* A printed copy of our Girls' Club Code is given to each new arrival in our school and a Big Sister is assigned to her. It is the duty of the Big Sister to explain the Code in terms of actual practice. Many committees work actively in promoting adherence to the Code.

5. *Athletes set the sportsmanship practices* and general school conduct because we know teenagers idealize this type of leadership. Excellent coaches who are superior teachers explain standards of conduct expected. Athletic squads handle their own discipline and conduct is near-perfect.

OPERATION FIRE HYDRANT

Last year our school joined the National Association of Student Councils. Shortly thereafter the council was at work trying to find a suitable Citizenship Project. We are located in one of the most rapidly growing areas in the Northwest. One of our most pressing problems is that public utilities are unable to keep pace with new housing. At the time students were searching for a project, a serious home fire occurred. The fire-fight-

ing equipment arrived too late to save the home because there were no telephones or street signs and because the firemen could not find the fire hydrant in the high grass, ferns, and brush.

One of the student council committees saw an opportunity to give real public service. It discussed the situation and decided that the school should clear away the growth around the hydrants and then paint them. They went into action with the approval of the principal and started mapping the area and planning the layout of work. Civic authorities were consulted and their approval was gained. In short order, committee reports were complete and factual; the job was to be done on a Saturday. The area was divided; crews were set up from the one hundred and thirty volunteers. Everything worked perfectly and, at the close of the day, two hundred and fifty hydrants were visible and accessible. We were all surprised and happy when we learned that the National Association of Student Councils had named our project as one of the thirty best in the country and sent us a check for \$50.

Summary of the presentation made by JESSE F. CARDWELL

DISTRESSED by incidents of aggression and delinquency among juveniles, the lay public is concerned about what the school is doing to develop good citizenship. Principals and teachers, conscious of the difficulties of dealing with specific behavior problems and feeling the pressure of the community, are equally concerned, but may deal more with symptoms than with causes. This happens when incidents of overt behavior and undesirable attitudes consume the time of school personnel. A positive approach to the development of good citizenship is slighted for the immediate problem of the delinquent. Narrow interpretations of the term "good citizenship" result. Johnny is a good citizen because he is polite and stays out of trouble. Too many adults in our communities get along well, stay out of trouble, and gain the reputation of being good citizens without ever assuming active roles of community citizenship. It is evident that the school may contribute to this kind of citizenship.

It is important for the school in our democracy to develop the kind of citizenship important to our way of life. This can be done only as the school encourages the pupil to actively identify himself with the life of the school and community; to recognize and accept responsibilities associated with group membership; to plan and to act in accord with the needs and welfare of the community group; to develop skills in good human relations and in democratic processes; to gain in knowledge and understanding of the ideals of freedom, justice, and democratic government; and, consequently, to grow in appreciation, understanding, acceptance, and

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practice of the ideals which make our society democratic and keep it that way. Nothing short of this ideal should motivate a school faculty in its efforts to develop good citizenship.

Goals must be set. Youth make their own standards. If done under guidance of interested and capable adult leadership, the standards set by youth will be high and good; but, left to themselves, youth may blunder and many will fall by the wayside because of having accepted standards counter to society.

The school can operate as a laboratory, where the development of good citizenship becomes a matter of participation in the here and now activities of the day. The pupil learns by doing, by trying out, and by experiencing both successes and failures, as he participates democratically in the organization and control of the school. Classroom situations provide opportunities to participate in many complete experiences of critical thinking and of making good judgment, and community problems present similar opportunities in the school at large. In the classrooms and many other places the school creates opportunities for recognizing and understanding social values, for identification with the group, and for practicing acceptable social behavior. The community life of the school provides many opportunities for civic services, for developing civic attitudes, and for growing in the processes of good citizenship.

The school cannot utilize all these opportunities without organizing, planning, and setting standards of conduct for both faculty and students.

Always, when there is talk about standards, different interpretations are placed on meanings. An autocrat in a school situation will aim to solve all citizenship problems by rules, which he calls standards. Rules are misused to force conformity. Democratic citizenship is not developed that way. Democracy stands or falls on the degree of initiative and independence the average citizen exercises, restricted always by concern for the dignity and worth of all individuals, their rights and needs, and a commitment to furthering the welfare of the community. A faculty that is vague in its own beliefs about the values of democracy cannot begin to develop good citizenship among the pupils of the school.

The faculty will agree upon and set its own standards of conduct for developing good citizenship, only after careful study and consideration of its own beliefs. Pupil standards of conduct should be decided upon cooperatively by pupils and faculty. Areas in which standards need to be evolved include:

1. *Participation in the work activities of the school.* Standards of pupil conduct and of teacher conduct in the work-study activities of the school are of major importance. Knowledge and understanding of subject matter constitute important elements of good citizenship. Well-defined purposes lead to the setting of standards for achievement. Teacher-pupil planning leads to purposes accepted by the learner.

2. *Practicing good human relations in the school.* Day-to-day human relations between teachers and pupils and among pupils contribute much

toward the development of good citizenship. Good human relations are dependent upon value standards accepted by pupils and teachers alike. The classroom is but one location in the school where value standards and skills in human relations need to be emphasized. The interested school will identify all areas, set up standards for teachers to observe and plan ways for encouraging students to accept standards of their own and to practice skills in human relationships.

3. *Building emotional adjustments in the school.* Good emotional adjustment is important. The Detroit Citizenship Education Study reached the conclusion that emotional stability is a major factor in determining the quality of citizenship. The teacher is not alone in responsibility for making possible good emotional adjustment. The administration and community have responsibilities. Standards need to be established which promote the maximum use of facilities and services to assure careful personal, social, and civic guidance and which identify the use of many opportunities within the school and community to promote emotional adjustment. Helping the youth to establish standards of conduct that make him successful in class and group activities promotes emotional adjustment.

4. *Developing civic knowledge and civic participation.* In emphasizing civic participation schools do not minimize knowledge. Each is important, and high standards of achievement are planned for the pupil as he studies to understand and to learn and as he participates to gain skills.

WHAT PROBLEMS CONCERN A PRINCIPAL MOST?

CHAIRMAN: *Warren C. Seyfert*, Headmaster, Country Day School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin

PANEL:

Clark Hendrix, Principal, Field Kindley High School, Coffeyville, Kansas

George A. Johnson, Principal, Howard High School, Wilmington, Delaware

Mary E. Meade, Assistant Superintendent, High School Division, New York City Public Schools, Brooklyn, New York

Norman J. Nelson, Department Superintendent, School Management and Supervision, Public Schools, Washington, D. C.

Harold C. Rapson, Principal, Cantrick Junior High School, Monroe, Michigan

Donald L. Simon, Principal, Bloomington High School, Bloomington, Indiana

SUMMARY REPORT

DURING the Convention a question box was placed near the Registration Desk for principals to deposit therein questions which they desired to have discussed by the panel. When the panel met, they were confronted with quite a number of questions from those in attendance at the Convention. In the opinion of a number of those present these questions were very ably answered by members of the panel. Almost 200 persons attended this problem clinic. From reports it was determined a very worth-while part of the entire program; in fact, so much so that quite a number requested that this question-and-answer idea be repeated at forthcoming Conventions.

EXPERIMENTATION DESIGNED TO IMPROVE INSTRUCTION AND RELIEVE THE TEACHER SHORTAGE IN JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

(Arranged by the Committee on Curriculum Planning and
Development, NASSP)

Monday

CHAIRMAN: *Wilford H. Woody*, Principal, West High School, Denver,
Colorado

DISCUSSANTS:

C. C. Byerly, First Assistant Superintendent, State Department of
Public Instruction, Springfield, Illinois

John R. Ludington, Chief, Secondary Schools Section, U. S. Office of
Education, Washington, D. C.

Raymond G. Wilson, Executive Secretary, Committee on Secondary
School, Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools,
Atlanta, Georgia

David B. Austin, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia
University, New York, New York

RECORDER: *Eldon F. Boyd*, Principal, Morningside High School, Ingle-
wood, California

Summary of the presentation made by LLOYD S. MICHAEL

Closed Circuit Television in English-Speech and in Typewriting Classes

OUR secondary schools face a most serious problem in the next few years as they seek ways and means of meeting the teacher shortage. Some secondary schools, such as Evanston Township High School, can either contribute significantly to the solution of the problem by demonstrating new and novel ways of improving the utilization of the most capable teachers, or such schools can aggravate the problem by continuing to recruit such capable teachers from other school systems because of less attractive salary schedules, heavier teaching loads, and other less favorable working conditions. The challenge to our better schools would seem to be their willingness to develop procedures to make it possible for some or most of their teachers to give instruction effectively to an increased number of pupils and, through such demonstrations, to find promising practices that will give greater responsibilities to capable teachers in all secondary schools, and, at the same time, to improve classroom instruction.

Lloyd S. Michael is Principal of Evanston Township High School in Evanston, Illinois.

Our project was designed to demonstrate ways in which some of the most capable teachers in a single high school might use closed-circuit television and teacher assistants—clerical aides and student teachers—to give effective instruction to an increased number of pupils enrolled in two courses—English-speech and beginning typewriting—during the current school year.

The second-year English-speech project is evaluating the effectiveness of closed-circuit television as a means for enabling one teacher, with three student teachers as assistants, to teach sixty-three pupils in a subject requiring a close personal relationship between teacher and pupil and a high level of pupil participation. The teacher is usually in the originating room with one group of pupils, while two student teachers are in charge of the other pupils in two receiving rooms. Vidicon cameras and microphones are used to transmit the lesson to pupils who watch it on television receivers in the adjoining rooms. A two-way audio system gives all pupils the opportunity to ask questions and to participate in class discussion. Units of work are presented in reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Teaching procedures include lecture-demonstration, discussion, speeches, and group activity.

The project in beginning typewriting is testing the effectiveness of closed-circuit television as a means for enabling one teacher, with a clerical assistant to teach seventy pupils in a skill subject. Vidicon cameras and microphones are used by the typewriting teacher to transmit the lesson to thirty-five pupils in another classroom while he is teaching a regular typing class of the same size in the originating room. A clerical assistant supervises the class in the receiving room. A camera in this room makes it possible for the teacher to monitor the group and to plan and to adjust his instruction to the needs of both classes.

The Commission on the Experimental Study of the Utilization of the Staff in the Secondary School gave approval to experimental studies in schools where carefully devised evaluation would be an integral part of the innovating practice in staff utilization. Attention was also urged to an appraisal of the quality of teaching in the experiment. The services of several consultants were made available. Many conferences were held with staff members in the local project to determine what evaluation questions should be raised, what priorities should be established with respect to the objectives to be measured, and what evaluation techniques and procedures should be used in the study.

Miss Wanda Mitchell, director of the television project, has stated the questions that the school hopes to answer in its evaluation.

1. To what degree can closed-circuit television assist in meeting the teacher shortage on the secondary-school level?

2. Can closed-circuit television effect an improvement in instruction and a better utilization of the well-qualified teacher?

3. Which outcomes of instruction in various subjects in the secondary school can be achieved more effectively, as effectively, less effectively by the use of closed-circuit television?

4. In what specific ways can closed-circuit television assist the classroom teacher in keeping the quality of instruction high in spite of increased enrollments?¹

One priority that was accepted by those on the staff responsible for the evaluation was concerned with certain learning conditions that were considered basic to the realization of the objectives of the courses. These learning conditions that were to be evaluated include: (1) development of a warm, cohesive group situation; (2) close relationship between teacher and pupils; (3) opportunities to participate in the activities of the course; (4) general satisfaction of the course and motivation of pupils; and (5) analysis of the sequence in the organization of the course.

Another priority which was agreed to in the evaluation of the English-speech course was related to the level of student progress in meeting the objectives of the course. It was decided that student progress in this course should be appraised in relation to the following:

1. Skill in using the mechanics of expression defined by the English department for the tenth grade

2. Ability to write clear and effective prose

3. Ability to interpret literary materials

4. Interest in reading

5. Ability to speak effectively before a group

6. Ability to listen effectively

7. Interest in the activities

It was understood that the usual testing procedures would be used in evaluating the learning outcomes in the courses in English-speech and beginning typewriting, since comparative data were sought in terms of such courses not taught by closed-circuit television. In addition, it was decided that the following evaluative techniques should be used by various individuals and groups participating in the evaluation:

1. Room observer reports—consultants and staff members

2. Pupil reaction reports—pupils enrolled in courses

3. Teacher and pupil interviews—consultants

4. Log of reactions—project teachers and assistants

5. Daily lesson plans—project teachers and assistants

6. Conferences—staff working on the project

7. Future selection of television courses—pupils

8. School staff appraisal—curriculum committee

9. Mechanical means of analysis and evaluation—kinescope and tape recordings

10. Reports and records of operation of equipment—technical operators

At the end of the first semester of the current school year, certain tentative conclusions have been made by the staff of evaluators. In the English-speech course, there are data to support these statements:

¹Wanda Mitchell, "Experiment at Evanston," *The AERT Journal*, November, 1956, p. 17.

1. The speech classes have developed a considerable degree of warmth and cohesion which permits the pupils to feel at ease in the groups.

2. In general, the pupils like and appreciate, to a high degree, the course and the learning experiences they are receiving.

3. The pupils feel their individual needs are being met in the course. Many pupils have stated that they are receiving more attention, getting more individual help, and experiencing more opportunity to participate than is the case in their other courses.

4. On the whole, the motivation is excellent. There is a high level of satisfaction with the course and the values that are evident in their instruction.

5. Their achievement in speaking is comparable to that of pupils enrolled in similar courses not taught by closed-circuit television. There has been no adequate evaluation to date for comparative purposes in terms of their achievements in listening, writing, and reading.

6. There has not been any problem with the operation of the equipment. The picture and sound have been satisfactory at all times.

A few of these tentative conclusions are also true for the classes in beginning typewriting. In addition, these statements are made by the teacher and the evaluation staff:

1. The pupils in the viewing room are learning to type as well as the pupils in the originating room. Test results indicate that their speed, accuracy, and the ability to apply these skills to production work compare favorably with the other class.

2. Reports of a number of outside observers and several typewriting teachers from other schools are all complimentary of the quality of teaching and the level of achievement of pupils.

3. Pupils being taught in the receiving room are satisfied with their instruction and the progress they are making in the course.

4. Parent interviews indicate that they are favorable to their children receiving instruction by closed-circuit television.

5. There are no apparent disadvantages to the instructor in television teaching. The availability of greater time for more planning and preparation and contacts with pupils outside of the class period is considered a definite advantage.

The school is planning a thorough and comprehensive evaluation of the project in closed-circuit television on the completion of the year's work in these courses.

Summary of the presentation made by CURTIS JOHNSON

Expansions in Laboratory Opportunities for Students in Science

THE Ford Foundation through the National Association of Secondary-School Principals has made it possible for our school to carry on an experiment in science. Our philosophy in science provides that we should include classroom discussion and a great deal of laboratory experience with projects. In many schools at the present time, they are plagued with

Curtis Johnson is Principal of the Alexander Ramsey High School in St. Paul, Minnesota.

increased enrollments and limited facilities, but at the same time increased demands for students well-trained. We have set up an experiment to try to provide good science learning conditions and be able to check our results.

Our curriculum in science for grades nine through twelve includes general science being required for grade nine; biology, elective grades ten and eleven; physics and applied physics elective, and chemistry and applied chemistry elective for grades eleven and twelve. The students who are registered in these classes have five 55-minute classes per week. Included in their instruction is discussion and laboratory work. Our school day is set up on the seven and one-half hour basis so that we have available one or two hours for activities each day. Our activities are scheduled for the students in the same manner as our academic classes. In our experiment the students can elect science as an activity. They sign for two to five hours per week during the activity period—after school between 3:30 and 5:00 and Saturday morning between 9:30 and 11:30.

Due to a grant of funds we have been able to employ individuals as laboratory assistants to supervise students in their work during the times mentioned above. Due to our location, being close to several colleges and the University of Minnesota, we have been able to employ science majors in the following categories: undergraduate seniors and graduate students working for their masters or doctorates. Our classroom teachers in the different areas meet with these assistants and supervise the work that is being carried on in the laboratory. By bringing in these assistants, it is possible for us to provide a great deal more laboratory experience and at the same time not put an increased load on our teachers.

In this experiment we have selected as our control group the students in ninth-grade science because all of our ninth-grade students are required to take science. All of the students in the ninth grade are not availing themselves of the extra laboratory periods, but we do have students from large classes, small classes, and students with a range in ability. These people have shown an interest in science. All of them were given a battery of tests at the beginning of this program. They will be tested during the school year. At the end of the year we will test again to try to determine the development in science during the year, comparing the students who have not taken advantage of the program with those who have received the additional training.

We hope that this type of a program will provide more opportunity for students in science; relieve, somewhat, the teacher shortage; provide in-service training for possible future teachers; and increase interest in science.

Summary of the presentation made by WILLIAM C. FRENCH

Building Design To Provide Student Work Areas and Co-operative Faculty Activities

DISCUSSION of the potential of Syosset High School (7-10 at present) must center largely upon what is planned for the future rather than what is now being done. Although classes are now being held in the building, major portions of the school are still under construction and the over-all staff organization is not complete.

The basic factor in the plan of the Syosset High School centers upon the question of whether or not the physical plant can be so designed basically as to implement better educational practice and better teacher utilization.

The physical arrangement in the Syosset High School is developed around four units of ten classrooms each (small schools) with each unit serviced by a project area about the size of two and a half classrooms, a small library and a curriculum work area.

The educational implications of this plan are based upon the belief that the provision of a project area can significantly improve instructional practice. This area offers possibilities for large group teaching under a skilled teacher. It is suggested that there is no real research to show that students always learn all things best in blocks of twenty-five to thirty students. Is it possible that a group of one hundred students could learn some things just as easily under one teacher, thus freeing other teachers to do better planning in more advanced areas? This represents one type of area within which we hope to conduct some exploratory work.

Other possibilities center around the use of the unit or small school approach to plant organization. Each unit represents a cross-section curricularly. Are the possibilities for coordinated work between teachers of various subject areas enhanced by the opportunity to develop joint efforts within a common area? Basically each unit can serve up to three hundred students of a given grade level. The ten teachers in a given unit all work with the same pupils and toward the same general goals of such things as citizenship, scholarship, study habits, and library skills. It is suggested that the design of the school plant may play a significant role in this area.

The use of the project area as an auxiliary teaching area also presents an educational possibility. Can the provision of a large work area, serviced by a library, and available to ten teachers, significantly enrich the educational program by making possible various combinations of small group work? Involved here are possibilities for self-teaching by the student, independent and group research by a part of a class while the teacher works with other members of the class.

William C. French is Principal of the Syosset High School in Syosset, New York.

Other items of significance also may be considered as worthy of special consideration. The design of the plant makes television education a possibility. The plant also enhances the operation of the guidance services and provides unique opportunities for library services. None of these aspects have been physically available for consideration at this time,, but do offer a rich potential.

Summary of the presentation made by JOHN H. FRENCH

Various Methods of Improving Staff Utilization in a Small High School

SINCE the shortage of good teachers is particularly heavy in small schools in the rural areas and since small schools make up a large proportion of the schools of the nation, experimentation of ways and means of improving the instruction of teachers in these schools seems important. The junior and senior teaching and administrative staffs and the board of education of Beecher Community Unit School District have participated in a strong in-service training program for several years, but this has not seemed sufficient. Therefore, when upon our application, an opportunity to participate in a program under the Commission in the Experimental Study of the Utilization of the Staff in the Secondary School under the auspices of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals presented itself, it was eagerly accepted.

This experimental program, it is hoped, as it develops, will serve the purposes of improving the instruction in the Beecher Junior and Senior High Schools, of developing a professional atmosphere that will cause our good teachers to want to remain in the profession, and of providing an opportunity for capable high-school students to gain a clearer insight of teaching as a career that more of them may choose to follow it.

As a result of preliminary planning by the staff, lay persons, the board of education, and Dr. Lloyd Trump, director of the Commission, experimentation is now under way in the Beecher High School in the following fields; (1) the use of selected high-school students as aids in elementary and in junior high- and senior high-school classes not only to assist teachers, but also to interest high-school students to become teachers; (2) the use of a non-certificated person in the school library working under the guidance of personnel from an accredited library school; (3) the use of more clerical assistance to teachers, and (4) the more extensive use of various instructional aids. Probable extension of this experimental program will include (1) the more extensive use of parents as chaperones at school functions and (2) possible changes in curricular offerings, schedules, and the like.

John H. French is Superintendent of Schools in Beecher, Illinois.

Much of the evaluation of this program deals with the possible changes in the attitudes of the teachers, students, and the public as a result of these innovations. Personnel from the University of Illinois and Northern Illinois State College who are skillful in the field of evaluation are assisting with the appraisals that they may be as impersonal as possible, thereby increasing their validity.

School costs are being studied that their relationship to instructional effectiveness may be noted. Teacher time studies are also being conducted that it may be determined to what extent and in what way participation in these experimental projects has affected the teachers use of the time given to their teaching duties. A comparison of these studies made in our school with similar ones made in schools of comparable size and location, but not using these innovations, will be made to assist in the total evaluations.

The entire faculty of the Beecher Junior and Senior High Schools has worked together in planning this experimental program. As it develops, some, such as those with students as aids, are involved more than others, but all are a part of it in one way or another. It is a cooperative enterprise that was started with the full approval of all.

The Beecher staff members recognize, of course, that the several things that they are doing may not be innovations to many schools. They are also aware, however, that often these practices are engaged in without accurate evaluations of their worth-whileness. They want to find out whether these practices are good or bad and to make public their findings that they and others will know whether to engage further in such activities.

No attempt will be made at this time to prophesy as to the results of the experimentation in the Beecher schools, although it must be said that no project has been started that the majority of the staff did not feel would possibly improve the results of instruction and at the same time make teaching a more rewarding experience for them. Later evaluations will prove to what extent these assumptions are correct.

EXPERIMENTATION DESIGNED TO IMPROVE INSTRUCTION AND RELIEVE THE TEACHER SHORTAGE IN JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

Tuesday

CHAIRMAN: *Matthew P. Gaffney*, Professor of Education, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts

DISCUSSANTS:

Clarence A. Brock, Assistant Supervisor of Administrators, State Department of Education, Charleston, West Virginia

Stanley A. Abercrombie, Assistant Secretary, National Commission on Safety Education, NEA, Washington, D. C.

Clifford Skinner, Vice Principal, Roosevelt High School, Portland, Oregon

J. G. Umstattd, Professor of Education, University of Texas, Austin, Texas

RECORDER: *Charles E. Manwiller*, Director of Curriculum Development, Public Schools, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

Summary of the presentation made by FLOYD B. RINKER

Reorganization of the School Day and Year—Improvement of the Curriculum

"UTILIZATION" is of single words the most accurate description of what is being done to achieve in Newton High School a more effective use of teachers, of time, and of space; but school and community know the present study and demonstration as *The Newton Plan*. Actually, members of the staff are tackling problems in six areas: teachers, students, subject matter, time, space, and compensation. Most important, we agree, is the effort to improve the curriculum. The quality of education and its continued betterment, not an expediency regulated by large enrollments and teacher shortages or an economy fostered by short-sighted pressure, is the reason for present endeavors. We share a common task. The real difference between Newton's goal and that of other schools lies only in the approach.

The Newton Plan, for which other departments are now mapping their programs, began its operation in the department of English. In September 1956, six teachers of English, assisted by a teacher from the art department, assumed for certain minima from the course of study full instructional responsibility for more than 2,500 students, grades X through XII. Working individually and cooperatively, they have done exhaustive research, prepared lessons, manufactured audio-visual materials acceptable

Floyd Rinker is Head of the Department of English in the Newton High School, Newtonville, Massachusetts.

in eye and ear appeal, and written and mimeographed supplementary study materials. Believing that certain subject matter could be better taught and more successfully mastered in a program that freed teacher and pupil from traditional and conventional barriers of curricula and years, they have endeavored to demonstrate the wise economy and sensible utility of theatre and arena techniques for large-group presentation. Evaluation already done, but only a beginning of a fuller study, supplies evidence of success in teaching certain common learnings: study habits, punctuation, spelling, dictionary use, vocabulary building, letter writing, paragraph organization, thought patterns, improvement of reading skills, research techniques, background lectures of the speech program, listening and note-taking, the world of books.

The primary goal is better instruction and memorable learning experiences for all the persons in our classes. We seek ways to increase the amount of information a student gets and the measure of knowledge he retains from year to year. We would find a way to give every individual the basic skills he needs, the preparation for a job or college admission, and the natural community-mindedness and experience of adult living. The purposes and practices of a high school, we claim, do not require single-minded devotion to curriculum segregation or a cellular existence. Such an approach may be conducive, at least in part, to the general restiveness, the sporadic unruliness, the failures in classroom accomplishment, and the drop-outs that tend to reflect on our own success.

Part of our task is to find and to capitalize on the wealth within our school staff, our city, and elsewhere, and to have these persons share in the learning experience of large numbers of young men and women, the students who come to us for schooling. There is nothing truly sacred about class size. Not all instruction can best be done in numbers of twenty-five, thirty, or thirty-five; sometimes, instruction must be two on a log or the teacher and a small group; at other times, equally good and possibly more effective teaching results when 100, 300, 500, or even more, are listening to and learning from a teacher trained in new techniques, assisted by proper use of equipment, and prepared for his class assignment as well as the concert pianist or the stellar performer on a coast-to-coast television show.

The Newton Plan is a constant barrage of questions and a serious effort to provide answers. What should we teach, to whom, and when? What about endless repetitions, year after year, or the graduates who never really had to assume their share of the responsibilities of their own schooling? Can we operate a more efficient school, and find time for general education for all? Can a school meet the individual goals of its students and still provide something beyond the aptitudes for a Civil Service Examination or the sixteen units for college admission?

The Newton Plan looks at the clock and the calendar. Like all senior high schools, Newton is under the compulsion of more things to learn and new things to learn. It recognizes the varied and exciting media with

which it must compete in getting the student's interest and his time. It wants to make certain that every boy and girl will confront the rudiments of law, economics, and personal finance, will have a share in the joys of music and other arts, will be aware of the great issues of our contemporary society and government, and, hopefully, will be safely embarked on a full and enriched life. The clock and the calendar supply many of the questions for which we seek answers. Is the high-school day always to remain 8.30 to 2.30, September through June? Or is the school to be open twelve months of the year? Five days or six? Day or night? Do pupils have to attend every day, five days a week and always an equally long day? Must every subject begin in September or February? Might a person complete a year's study in English or history or other course in double period for one-half year? Are there subjects that would be better taught and learned in a short period of concentrated time? Doesn't a school have to look at the clock and the calendar? The young have many years to live. Science speaks of an age not far distant when the centenarian will be man in his prime, when man can live to fabulous age unless he accepts mass suicide, as a relief from sheer boredom. The shorter working day, the shorter week, the longer life—all three are beginning to demand improvement in the curriculum and reorganization of school time.

Summary of the presentation made by W. J. SCANLAN

Increased Services of Master Teachers Assisted by Cadet Teachers and Clerical Help

WE HAVE a master teacher, Miss Arlys Denzel, who teaches a total of 558 pupils in four classes as follows: a ninth-grade chorus consisting of 184 students, 54 boys and 130 girls; an "A" choir consisting of 156 pupils, largely juniors and seniors, 76 boys and 80 girls; a "B" choir consisting of 94 students, 42 boys and 52 girls; and a girl's glee club consisting of 124 members. These four classes run approximately 55 minutes in length each day. On certain days, usually once a week, when school assemblies occur, the first three periods are shortened in length to provide time for the student assemblies. During the traditional six-period day, one period is unassigned (the traditional free period) and one period is used for work with individuals or groups.

The vocal music department is a busy place from early September until the last hour of the evening of commencement the following June. Last year, Miss Denzel sent eight students to the National Music Educators Conference in Saint Louis. Our state had twenty students in the chorus, eight being from Central High School. During the year, Miss Denzel

William J. Scanlan is Principal of Central High School in Saint Paul, Minnesota.

supervises two or three student teachers from neighboring colleges or the state university in the metropolitan area of Saint Paul and Minneapolis.

There are a number of ensembles that work together and appear at public performances in the community. A few examples: the *Central Octet* consisting of four boys and four girls. This group has appeared before such groups as the Women's Institute Christmas program with an audience of approximately 5,000; the Gloria Dei Church Interfaith Tea with an audience of 1,000. The group has appeared before no less than seven audiences thus far this year. There are a number of other groups such as a *Girls' Sextet*, a *Boys' Quartet*, a *Girls' Trio*, *The Chickens*, *Boys' Rhythm Group* (consisting of four boys), and several others.

LARGER GROUPS AND THEIR ACTIVITIES

The "A" choir consists of 156 voices, 76 boys and 80 girls. This group is probably the best known Central High School musical group. They have appeared at a number of public performances including Christmas programs for the student body and the parents and friends. They plan to participate in *Brigadoon* in early April. In May they will join the speech department and do an original creation, *It's a Big, Wide, Wonderful World*.

How could one teacher supervise all these students, participate in all these activities? It is being done at Central High School in Saint Paul, Minnesota. It is being done by a gifted woman who has had years of experience as a classroom teacher. Today her work is made easier and she is able to devote her time to the important aspects of teaching because a clerk has a place in this classroom.

We are an active, participating group. We appear on television and on radio; we sing before live audiences in our high-school auditorium before the student body at one time, before our parents and friends at another. We travel to state and national meetings; we sing the songs we love to sing; we sing of God, of country, of the world. We sing at school today; we will sing tomorrow, and tomorrow, and tomorrow. We will sing on the farm, in the city, at church, at home, in the Armed Forces, at work and at play—in joy and in sorrow. As Walt Whitman wrote almost one hundred years ago: "*I hear America singing, the varied carols I hear*"

THE CLERK WHO ASSISTS THE MUSIC TEACHER

A clerk is employed full time, five days a week for eight hours each day. The clerk, Miss JoAnn Lieder, is a civil service employee classified as a junior clerk and earning \$212 per month. Her duties may be divided into four categories: clerical duties, general bookkeeping duties, general housekeeping duties, administrative duties delegated by the classroom teacher.

Clerical duties—The clerk checks attendance, signs excuses, keeps records of absences, prepares seating charts, checks unexcused absences, and sends irregularity slips to the office. Attendance is checked in the classroom, in

the auditorium at assemblies, at symphony concerts (there are two each year at which the Minneapolis Symphony Orchestra plays for an all-city high-school audience). Approximately 400 went to the last symphony concert. She files the music away at the end of a period; for example, following the Christmas season, the music is filed away until it is needed again.

Secretarial duties—The clerk makes the necessary telephone calls, writes business letters, reads information from the daily school bulletin that is of concern to students in music classes. She prepares report cards and consults with the teacher on marks. She answers the endless number of questions that arise concerning problems that involve these youngsters and these classes: "Where do I get my symphony ticket?" "When do we practice in the auditorium?" "What time do we appear on television?" "Which station?"

General bookkeeping duties—The clerk spends hours collecting fees, counting money, and making deposits with the school bursar. Fees involve such items as fee for rental of uniform, fees for music to help defray cost of sheet music, fees for music scores for operetta, and cost of symphony orchestra tickets. Accuracy is important; careful records must be kept; deposits must be made.

General housekeeping duties—The clerk consults with the teacher and assists her in planning and arranging the bulletin board. Too, she consults with and assists in helping to decorate the room for the various seasons, holidays, and school activities. The care of choir uniforms and robes involves considerable time and care. For certain events the "A" choir appears in their new uniforms, at other times they appear in the traditional robes. Issuing robes or uniforms, checking them in and out, all this involves care and time.

General administrative duties delegated by the classroom teacher—The clerk signs excuses each day; for example, admission to class following an absence. She may make certain announcements concerning policy if she has been instructed to do so; for example, an announcement concerning the amount of a fee to be collected; when it is to be paid; what the fee covers.

Has the program been successful? Miss Denzel reported: "Before the clerk was hired many of these duties were handled by reliable students. Many of these students missed half of a music period each day. Some students did typing, *etc.* at home for me so we could keep records, *etc.* up-to-date. It was very difficult for me to keep my fingers on everything, but we did the best we could." As principal I may add that today we are teaching more high-school youth; today Miss Denzel has 558 pupils; a year ago she had 491. We have large classes. The pupils like the classes.

Summary of the presentation made by W. H. ELLEY

Individualization of Instruction in Large Classes Through Use of Tape Recordings

THE title of this topic is somewhat misleading. It assumes that we have reached our goal. When we really get to the place where we can shuttle ninety or one hundred pupils into a tape drill room electrically equipped and more or less fool proof against mechanical breakdown with one or two teachers in charge, and the pupils go quietly about their business of learning a drill subject such as spelling on three or four ability levels, we will have arrived. Right now we are perhaps one third of the way there with strong indications, but not statistical proof that the job can be done. Part of our difficulty lies in the direction that the needed equipment cannot be purchased as yet on the open market, but must be specially ordered. In some instances the equipment received has been faulty. It is true that this is being remedied.

Proper and more or less foolproof equipment having been selected and tried out, we now turned our attention to our major problem, "Can tapes really teach a subject as well or better than a teacher?" To check this we have pitted four tape-taught seventh-grade spelling classes against one teacher-taught class. In all the classes, we are teaching 10+ words a day (seventh-grade words having a difficulty rating that weeds out the too easy words that appear in our spellers and probably don't need teaching at all). To date, after giving unit tests every seven days and retention tests for each unit after a waiting period of five weeks or more, it *appears*, mark you that I said it *appears*, that in every case the tape-taught classes have not only equalled the teacher-taught class, but also have done somewhat better. We will not be able to back up this statement until all our statistical work which is being done at Nebraska University has been completed. And we won't even then make this statement without reservations until, at the end of six months or a year, a comparison is made between the pretest and the final achievement scores of the tape-taught and teacher-taught groups.

Now the next problem was how to get the tape recordings to the ears of the students. Our first method of approach was setting up groups of four around tables, each of which had its own distribution box and four single earphones that attached to the ear. Besides teaching spelling, we are teaching conversational Spanish by tape through teachers that know no Spanish. We believed that this grouping offered a fine way for every one in the group to participate in answering the tape. It worked beautifully except that setting up the boxes for an hour's work is a bit of a nuisance, but it is no more so than that of handing out art materials would be. We are now trying loud speakers in some classes instead of ear-

W. Houston Elley is Principal of Westside Junior-Senior High School in Omaha, Nebraska.

phones. They seem to be working out all right so far. We are even hooking up three rooms at the same time to one recorder since there are three rooms of almost the same ability studying spelling at the same time. In another group containing mostly remedial cases, after sorting out the four or five who seem to be able to get 70 out of 75 words correct every seven days and putting them with a regular class, half of the remaining class is working on remedial tapes. Meanwhile, two *very* special groups from the remedial group containing two non-readers meet at the same hour in a teachers' work room where they are supervised but require very little watching once they are started on the proper tape. There is no reason why three or four tape recorders couldn't be put in one classroom. If all groups are equipped with earphones, there is no interference. But by keeping several tape recorders in a teachers' work room, used also as a remedial room, the school has available for remedial purposes several different learning centers at the same time for *all* classes. In connection with this, a Saturday morning self-help class using five tape recorders at a time has been tried. With a charge of fifty cents a piece, the room was almost self-supporting on Spanish and Latin tapes alone. When other subjects have been taped, the room will more than pay for someone to run it on Saturday mornings. The pupils seem to be anxious to come for this class, preferring it to remedial help given during the day or after school. Every day is turning up new facts which we can use to promote the use of tape recorders to spread good teaching and to relieve teachers.

Summary of the Presentation made by T. D. WIMAN, JR.

Curriculum Revision as an Aid in Staff Utilization

RECOGNIZING the need for increased staff utilization in the light of an ever-growing school population, and the demands that are being made on our public schools, the Snyder High School began studying ways in which this might be brought about in April of last year. After numerous discussions and meetings with members of the faculty and the administration, it was decided that a revision of the curriculum and class schedule format might provide the basis for experimentation. It was decided that the project should have as its goal the following outcomes:

1. The student's learning must be improved over those in typical classes.
2. Students must learn better how to study and to do independent and creative thinking.
3. The climate for learning must be improved, and efficient use of student time must be greater.
4. Students must receive as much or more individual attention.
5. With the proper planning, techniques, and equipment, one teacher might in-

T. D. Wiman, Jr. is Principal of the Snyder High School in Snyder, Texas.

crease her class size to as much as seventy-five or one hundred students or more and still get as good or better results.

6. Teachers must be provided more time for planning.

7. Teachers must be better satisfied and less fatigued.

To develop a program within the framework of this philosophy, there had to be a voluntary willingness on the part of some department in the Snyder High School to experiment and accept change even though the changes might be drastic. By the time the principal began thinking of a schedule in the spring for the fall semester, it was found that the science department was waiting for the go-ahead on some type of project using larger classes than the standard twenty-four.

In cooperation, then, with the science department, with Lehman G. Richardson at its head, we decided to begin the experiment by combining three classes in ninth-grade general science, with approximately eighty-five students, and also a class in biology with some sixty students. In general, classes are organized around the educational conference plan, using a combination of many methods growing out of the unit-project pattern. Much use is being made of teacher-pupil planning, community resources, many types of audio-visual equipment, the library for research, and of other types of teaching materials. Adult teacher assistants are being used to assist in the preparation of materials in the laboratory, in grading papers, in checking supplies, and in doing clerical work such as typing and mimeographing. Advanced science students are used as laboratory helpers in preparing experiments, checking rolls, at times in leading discussion groups, giving students assistance in finding materials, repairing equipment, and in keeping the laboratory in order. Students are not paid for work done during regular school hours, but are paid at the rate of one dollar per hour for work after school and at night. As often as needed, a large class meets for lectures, student presentations, *etc.* The balance of the time is spent in laboratories, on field trips, conferences with teachers, group study and planning, research in the library, or doing various other types of assignments. Much responsibility is placed upon the student as we feel that this should be one of the outcomes of the experiment.

Equipment is one of the primary concerns in a project of this type, both as to laboratory apparatus and teaching devices. Some of the principal teaching devices used are: closed-circuit TV, overhead viewers, sound system, tape-recorders, movie, filmstrip, and slide projectors, charts, reference materials, and an adequate library.

Methods to evaluate student progress and acceptance by teachers, students, and the community are being sought. Various types of tests are being used to obtain information; such as, (1) Cooperative (ETS) or World Book Company tests, (2) Iowa Tests of Educational Development, (3) Brainard Personal Preference Inventory, (4) Brown-Holtzman Survey of Study Habits and Attitudes, (5) Mooney Check List, teacher-made ex-

aminations, and pupil-parent opinionaires. Results so far, in general, have been favorable both as to student progress and acceptance.

The experiment has expanded from the original group to three large sections in general science consisting of 220 students. We, also, are beginning one section in ninth-grade English of some seventy-five students. It is anticipated that other departments, such as business and social studies, will become part of the program in the following year. There are seven volunteer student-assistants, one full-time adult-assistant, and a part-time clerk, in addition to the teachers involved in the project. Members of the pupil-personnel services have also contributed a great deal to this plan.

There are several problems that are being encountered that we believe are worthy of note:

1. There is a need for various size rooms, some large, some conference-type for small groups, and some regular class size.
2. The building was not planned for the use of closed-circuit TV.
3. There is a difficulty in securing adult teacher-assistants with the proper background and qualifications.
4. There is also the problem of flexibility in scheduling.
5. Proper and efficient planning are absolutely essential.
6. Securing adequate equipment, such as TV, *etc.*, is mandatory.
7. Teachers must be willing to work, and to work very closely and harmoniously.
8. Students must be given a great deal of freedom, and they must realize that with this freedom goes responsibility.
9. Developing a philosophy in teachers to accept the idea of experimentation and providing a feeling of security for them as they try something new are of paramount importance; in fact, this is the key to the entire experiment.

In the short time that we have been involved in revising our plan of teaching, looking forward to increased utilization of our staff, we do not claim to have found the answers, but, because of it, the teachers involved are working with an open mind, and are seeking new and better techniques. All teachers are thinking in terms of finding ways to improve their teaching, whether they are involved in the project or otherwise.

Summary of the presentation made by D. E. DEAN

Utilization of Teaching Assistants in Driver Education

No paper available for publication.

THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL IN IMPROVING THE QUALITY OF INSTRUCTION—THROUGH CURRICULUM DESIGN

(Arranged by the Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development, NASSP)

Monday

CHAIRMAN: *John C. Greer*, Principal, Weir High School, Wierton, West Virginia

DISCUSSANTS:

Robert J. Keller, Professor of Education and Director, University High School, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota

H. Pat Wardlaw, Assistant Commissioner, Division of Instruction, State Department of Education, Jefferson City, Missouri

RECORDER: *Delmas F. Miller*, Principal, University High School, West Virginia University, Morgantown, West Virginia

Summary of the presentation made by GRANT W. JENSEN

CHANGES occurring in this age that have brought into being our modern world with accompanying living conditions that are revolutionizing the lives of people are based on analysis of the physical structure of things in our universe. The seemingly endless production of marvelous products that find their way into the homes, offices, and businesses of our people is a result of man's mastery of material. This age of atomic energy and power, of chemistry and electronics has given business and industry new tools to speed the processes of research and of manufacture.

Accustomed to these surging changes some people are asking why they have not been adopted to our school programs. Why must the length of the school day be the same as formerly? Why must the pupil-teacher ratio remain the same for effective teaching and learning? Why must school curriculums retain their agedness?

It has been demonstrated in the field and confirmed through research that the most effective unit for curriculum development is the single school plant. Leadership and the direction of the curriculum rests squarely on the principal. As *the* leader, he must analyze the forces of the past and present and project into the future if the school program is to be properly oriented.

The youth of today are living in a world and accustomed to conditions that were unthought of when our current adults were youngsters. Educators must sift through their own prejudices to organize patterns of instruction for effective learning in our time.

One pattern of curriculum commonly found in the high schools of our country calls for the completion of a so called "major" prior to gradu-

Grant W. Jensen is Principal of South High School in Bakersfield, California.

ation. The persistence of this pattern is not in focus with the relationship of the age and characteristics of our current secondary-school population. This pattern does not recognize the gains made in the areas of individual differences and counseling and guidance. In the crowded curriculum of the modern high school, this pattern acts as a restrictive measure in the selection of electives so necessary to promote the special abilities and interests of students.

Educators naturally scurry to their own defense when attacked by critics who speak but half-truths and are not aware of the actual conditions in our schools. But such challenges are healthy and, from the debates, clearer statements of our problems can be derived. Suppose a brief analysis of the charge that the schools are not doing the desired job in the fields of mathematics and science is reviewed. We can then draw a few implications.

1. Students attending high school in 1900 were almost entirely preparing for college. These students were required to take chemistry or physics, algebra and geometry, and in some instances a half year of trigonometry.

2. In 1957, while the content of such courses have been modified, these same requirements hold true.

3. Most of our non-college preparatory students are offered a choice of several general courses in science and general mathematics, and ordinarily complete one course in mathematics and one in science prior to graduation from high school.

4. The conclusion drawn is that more students in actual numbers are taking mathematics and science.

The challenge is not solved so easily in these words, for the tremendous changes wrought in our lives by the effects of science and mathematics from 1900 to 1957 and thus the hastening of even more revolutionary changes for tomorrow have not been reflected in scope nor depth in our high-school science or mathematics programs. Whether we discuss daily living, industry, or technological changes, we must become abruptly aware of our changing world. *Yet the average length of time devoted to these areas in our school programs has not materially changed in half a century!*

A similar analysis could be conducted of the fields of English and social studies. Masses of materials and events indicate the need for more intensive education of our students in these areas. Administrators realize this cannot be done through the addition of courses to the present curriculum.

Suggested solutions call for new curriculum patterns that change the scope, sequence, and time allotments now found in the traditional curriculums. Opportunities are afforded to hasten this process since the number of students is increasing and new plants are being opened to accommodate them. Principals have the greatest opportunity presented since the 1930's to break the lock-step that has been in vogue. While established schools will find the process much longer, it will be easier to accomplish because of the lead of the new schools.

Curriculum designs, based on factors following those briefly described, permit teachers to gain a degree of flexibility in teaching that arises from the team concept of attacking problems rather than the departmentalized or segmented viewpoint. It is obligatory that the principal assume his role of either personally directing curriculum building or, if he is not efficient in this field, of employing a capable person to direct the program. The role of the administrator must be that of setting conditions of work and the atmosphere to utilize the many diverse ideas and abilities found in his given faculty.

Curriculum building for the modern school cannot be one of piecemeal planning, attacking one area at a time; segmented work must follow the creation of a master plan where vision, ingenuity, and staff planning are utilized. Only in this way can a school program be built that will meet the needs of youth and society today through the provision of a hard, sound core in the modern curriculum.

Summary of the presentation made by H. S. SHEAROUSE

AS THE title of this topic indicates, there is, of course, only one major purpose of the secondary school and that is, through a program of instruction, to help each individual to develop to his optimum possibilities. Organization and administration of a secondary school, of course, does become the profession of a secondary-school principal. However, organization and administration are not an end within themselves, but are designed only to facilitate the instructional program. Therefore, when one talks about curriculum organization, we should keep in mind at all times that what we are really talking about is a design or a pattern of organization which will best facilitate the instructional program.

There seem to be two major types of curriculum organization in public secondary schools today. I know that one can list a number of types of organization; however, I believe that in the main, there are two major types which may be called multi-curriculum organization and single-type curriculum organization. At any rate, this presentation will be concerned with these two types.

The multi-curriculum organization is well-known because it is used in a large number of secondary schools in this country. It classifies subject offerings into separate courses or tracts, such as college preparatory curriculum, business education curriculum, home making curriculum, agricultural curriculum, manual arts curriculum, fine arts curriculum, and on and on. It is obvious that this kind of organization has been devised for the purpose of taking care of the needs of the students we have in our secondary schools today with their very wide degree of abilities,

H. S. Shearouse is Director of Curriculum Development in the State Department of Education, Atlanta, Georgia.

aptitudes, and interests. Once such a program has been devised and is in operation, the principal can mimeograph or print the various programs and send it to the parent and student who plans to enroll in his high school. I am afraid that in too many cases, the parent and pupil do not have an opportunity to see this outline until the time he comes to register in the high school and then the parent and pupil are faced with the situation of deciding which of these courses the student will elect, (and this will be about the only election he will have; therefore, it is very important that he select the proper course in the beginning.)

Many states and local schools have developed a program of required courses for all students. This is sometimes called the core, the common learnings, or the required constants. Each of the courses will require the constants as the common base and then we will proceed to set down the special requirements for the particular course so that the student will have little or no elective subjects. It is not uncommon to see a high school with a very large and rich offering in terms of total courses, but it will be arranged so that the individual student will have little or no opportunity to elect courses beyond his prescribed curriculum.

The single-type curriculum organization does not classify subject offerings into separate courses. The pupils' program, as far as electives go, (here again you would find the required constants), takes into account his capacities and interest and is tailor-made to suit his particular purposes and needs. This, of course, is a much more flexible type of organization and for that reason, of necessity, requires much more guidance on the part of the parent and the school than does the other type of organization.

Some of the disadvantages of the multi-curricular organization are:

1. It enhances prestige factors, allied with one or two courses such as academic or college preparatory, thus creating a "class consciousness."
2. It results in more rigid curricular organization within specified courses.
3. It makes changing from one course to another course a hazard.
4. It tends to stratify course requirements.
5. It sometimes leads to differentiated diplomas.

Some of the advantages of the single type curricular organization are:

1. It adjusts better to individual needs.
2. It tends to eliminate prestige value of certain course names such as academic or college preparatory.
3. It allows wider use of electives in a tailor-made program for each pupil.
4. It encourages greater flexibility in total program offerings while still requiring same constants for all.
5. It necessitates greater functional use of guidance and counseling.
6. It makes greater use of parent-teacher-pupil conferences, setting up the pattern of a pupil's schedule.

THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL IN IMPROVING THE QUALITY OF INSTRUCTION—THROUGH ADAPTATION TO PUPIL NEEDS

Tuesday

CHAIRMAN: *A. Edson Smith*, Superintendent, East Alton-Wood River Community High School, Wood River, Illinois

DISCUSSANTS:

L. L. Bloomenshine, Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Secondary Schools, City Schools, San Diego, California

Rodney Tillman, Executive Secretary, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Washington, D. C.

George J. Geier, Principal, Hawthorne High School, Hawthorne, New Jersey

RECORDER: *Paul W. Harnly*, Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Secondary Education, Public Schools, Wichita, Kansas

Summary of the presentation made by KENNETH A. ERICKSON

EDUCATORS agree that the instructional program of our secondary schools cannot remain as it is and meet the needs of all pupils enrolled. Many problems exist today for which answers must be found. What can be done to improve the quality of instruction? Who is responsible for effecting needed improvements?

Advances in instructional programs will never be effected on a national, state, or even city-wide basis. Instructional improvements are dependent on what is actually accomplished *within* each individual school by individual teachers. These teachers may or may not work to better their instructional programs, depending largely on the governing school atmosphere as established consciously or unconsciously by the principal. Any program of instructional improvement, therefore, must succeed or fail largely in proportion to what the principal does as the educational leader. Then how does the principal influence the quality of instruction within his school?

Naturally when vacancies are to be filled, care in the selection of new teachers is of utmost importance. Yet the principal is responsible for improving the instructional program with teachers on his staff *today*. He may not succeed in stimulating all teachers to participate in programs of instructional improvement, but he can work on a partial front with those dedicated staff members, old and young alike, who are more interested in exploring the vital world of new ideas than in marking time in a passive livelihood.

Before teachers will venture into new and unfamiliar paths, they need to be assured that sufficient security to allow deviation from time-tested

Kenneth A. Erickson is Principal of the Franklin High School in Portland, Oregon.

routes is permissible. Otherwise, teachers may resist changes, either actively or passively, and cling to whatever security is to be found in maintaining the familiar *status quo*. Hence whether or not teachers feel they actually can experiment in their instruction depends on the nature of that invisible but omnipresent school atmosphere established by the principal.

Teachers' attitudes, therefore, are influenced by the school atmosphere which originates in the principal's office. If educational experimentation is even to begin, this atmosphere must allow teachers to admit to problems and to express dissatisfactions, with no threat to their security. Teachers must feel free to discuss school problems both with their peers and their principals without the slightest implication of disloyalty. Teachers should be encouraged to try new approaches in an effort to correct dissatisfactions with the instructional program. They should feel free to fail in their experiments as well as to succeed without loss of prestige or threat to their security. They must be free to accept credit for successful experiments with no indication that the principal assumes or covets that credit for himself.

The provision of that essential atmosphere, which allows the staff to attack dissatisfactions constructively, is a prime responsibility of the principal. Teachers will not attempt to change their instructional methods if, by so doing, they feel less satisfied, less secure, or less loyal. Today's problems are the best indicators of what tomorrow's improvements should be. This is the crux of any program of instructional improvement.

School principals must do more than foster an atmosphere which encourages teachers to tackle their problems. *First*, the effective principal when confronted with school problems cannot feel insecure within himself. Problems when studied openly contain the possibility that new ideas and answers will develop. *Second*, the principal must provide opportunities for groups of teachers to engage in group discussions. He must offer every assistance to these groups and help to provide such essentials as meeting times, meeting place, and a pleasant environment which may include refreshments. There must, of course, be leadership for such a group, but it need not be his. In fact, the principal must avoid domination of group thinking or discussion if that creative group is to continue to function. Such a study group will be effective in achieving results only in the degree to which it becomes actively involved in the problem. Principals must remember that teachers with that special insight gained from continual classroom experience usually contribute the most to such discussions.

Such an approach is diametrically opposed to the belief that outside experts have all the curriculum answers. Ready-made solutions by *outside* experts seldom have long life *inside* the classroom. If principals attempt to make teachers curriculum recipients, rather than participants, teachers may mouth the latest educational jargon and attempt to go through some of the motions, but not with enduring results. Only when

teachers are involved in the discovery of facts do understandings really become theirs to know, to experiment with, to advocate, and even to defend. Always it must be remembered that it is not the program itself but the *teacher* who effects changes and improvements.

A desirable school atmosphere also allows teachers the natural satisfactions of accomplishment and the concomitant feelings of success. Nothing will encourage future experimentation like former rewarding experiences. Conversely, nothing will kill teacher initiative faster than the principal who claims credit for work accomplished by his teachers!

How then can the principal improve the quality of instruction and best guarantee its adaptation to pupil needs? His most important responsibility is to create an atmosphere where teachers are free and encouraged to face and solve their instructional problems. When dedicated teachers think and work together in a desirable school atmosphere, the quality of future instruction will be improved. Who else affects the curriculum more directly?

Summary of the presentation made by D. E. ELSWICK

THE principal's evaluation and redirection of his role in terms of criteria reflecting modern administrative and supervisory practices and the philosophy of the local school district are desirable prerequisites to planning his leadership program. Effective leadership requires that channels of communication be maintained with all the people with whom he works. The points of view of central office staff and teaching personnel, knowledge and understanding of the instructional problems of teachers, a keen awareness and appreciation of the personal and academic needs of pupils, a concern for the interests and attitudes of parents—these are some of the guidelines that enable the principal to maintain a proper perspective of his leadership responsibilities and opportunities.

What amounts to a general redirection of the principal's role in Kentucky schools is an important outcome of the new Foundation Program Law enacted in 1954 and fully financed in 1956. Criteria for fifteen administrative and supervisory instructional services personnel units were formulated by state-wide committees and made a part of State Board Regulations. With a working knowledge of the general need for improving the quality of instruction, the Committee on the principalship sought to free the principal from non-professional and excessive teaching duties by directing that the principal devote fifty (50) per cent or more of his time to the supervision of instruction. The remaining portion of his time may be divided between administrative duties and classroom teaching, depending upon the size and needs of the school. Other sections of the criteria relating to facilities state that clerical assistance and ade-

D. E. Elswick is Director of the Division of Instructional Services in the State Department of Education, Frankfort, Kentucky.

quate financial support for the principal's office shall be provided commensurate with the size of the school. Any principal applying for a full unit must confine his duties to administration and supervision.

The principal's planned supervisory program should reflect the instructional needs of all pupils; particularly, needs in problem areas identified by teachers. Whether personal or academic pupil needs, the areas so selected for total faculty or small group study should be cooperatively planned, involve representative pupils and lay people, follow democratic procedures, have clearly stated and attainable goals, satisfactory scheduling, and continuous evaluation.

Not innovations hastily adopted but an action program constantly evolving from many areas—basic pupil studies, curriculum planning, re-examining school philosophy and objectives, total school evaluation, program for understanding how children grow and learn, teaching-learning materials, organized guidance program, and school-community relationships—is the challenge to a principal in relating instruction to pupil needs.

The pattern for administration and organization of the school should reflect the same type of positive leadership expected in the supervisory program. The democratic atmosphere in the modern school, provisions for individual differences, cooperative policy-making, changing emphasis from discipline to self-control, the expanding co-curricular program, and improved administrative practices generally contribute materially to improving the quality of instruction.

Wednesday

THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL IN IMPROVING THE QUALITY OF INSTRUCTION—THROUGH BETTER STAFF UTILIZATION

(Arranged by the Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.)

CHAIRMAN: *C. W. Sanford*, Dean of Admissions, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois; Chairman, Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development, NASSP.

PANEL:

Eldon F. Boyd, Principal, Morningside High School, Inglewood California

Dan F. Cagle, Principal, Sedgefield Junior High School, Charlotte, North Carolina

Paul W. Harnly, Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Secondary Education, Public Schools, Wichita, Kansas

Charles E. Manwiller, Director of Curriculum Development, Public Schools, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

Delmas F. Miller, Principal, University High School, West Virginia University, Morgantown, West Virginia

Wilford H. Woody, Principal, West High School, Denver, Colorado

RECORDER: *Dan F. Cagle*, Principal, Sedgefield Junior High School, Charlotte, North Carolina

DISCUSSANTS:

J. Dan Hull, Director, Instruction, Organization, and Services Branch; U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

Ellsworth Tompkins, Assistant Secretary for Administrative Services, NASSP, Washington, D. C.

J. Lloyd Trump, Director, NASSP Commission on the Experimental Study of the Utilization of the Staff in the Secondary School, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois

Lester W. Nelson, Education Consultant, Fund for the Advancement of Education, New York, New York

IN considering the role of the principal in improving the quality of instruction through better staff utilization, and other means, major attention was focused (1) on organizing and initiating an improvement program; (2) on defining and utilizing an adequate research base; (3) on identifying the main behavioral outcomes desired from instruction; (4) on providing for individual differences among students (5) on extending experimentation with television, tape recordings, teacher aides, and so on; and (6) on improving evaluation. A number of the suggestions proposed were as follows:

1. One principal reported the successful correlation of qualifications and experience of members of the staff with their interests in teaching, extraclass, and other assignments by using non-certificated personnel to perform many of the routine, time-consuming, and less attractive duties previously handled by regular teachers.

2. Principals should offer leadership in developing effective research programs designed to lead to fundamental improvements in instruction. Refined appraisal of the outcomes of instruction is essential, in many schools, to improvements. Experimentation should be encouraged. Research is often an individual school problem.

3. Support should be given to the philosophy that behavior involves feeling and thinking, as well as acting, and that facts learned for the sake of facts alone are of no value, except, perhaps, to "village gossips" and to contestants on television quiz programs. Reference was made to the list of behavioral outcomes being prepared by the Educational Testing Service.

(Continued on page 285)

Part II

First General Session

Saturday, February 23, 11:00 A.M.

SHERATON HALL, SHERATON-PARK HOTEL

Presiding: George L. Cleland, Secondary-School Consultant, State Department of Education, Topeka, Kansas; and President of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Platform Guests: Officers and members of the Executive Committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals; and Presidents of Co-operating Secondary-School Principals' Associations.

Presentation of the Colors by the High School Cadet Corps, Public Schools, Washington, D. C.; Lt. Col. William J. Barkman, Lt. Col. Benjamin L. Hunton, Supervising Directors of Military Science.

Pledge of Allegiance: Led by Cadet Lt. Col. Walter P. Ellis, Anacostia High School, Washington, D. C.; John D. Koontz, Principal.

Audience sang the Star-Spangled Banner: Led by Paul D. Gable, Supervising Director of Music, Public Schools, Washington, D. C.

Invocation by The Rev. Edward G. Latch, Minister, Metropolitan Memorial Methodist Church, Washington, D. C.

Music by the Northwestern Senior High School Band, Hyattsville, Maryland; Michael Ronca, Director; John P. Speicher, Principal.

Greetings by Charles S. Lofton, Principal, Dunbar High School, Washington, D. C.; President, District of Columbia Association of Secondary-School Principals; Hobart M. Corning, Superintendent of Schools, Washington, D. C.

Presentation of Key to the City to President of NASSP: Robert E. McLaughlin, President, Board of Commissioners, Washington, D. C.

Address:

CRITICAL ISSUES FACING SECONDARY EDUCATION

HENRY I. WILLETT

IT IS not the purpose of this discussion to praise secondary education nor to list its accomplishments during the first half of this century. It should be noted in passing, however, that the schools of America, despite weaknesses and short-comings, have played a major role in the development of the present unprecedented standard of living that is

Henry I. Willett is Superintendent of Schools in Richmond, Virginia.

enjoyed in the United States. This is a factor that some unsympathetic critics of the schools conveniently overlook in their broad generalizations and not too subtle innuendoes by which they condemn education in general and public education in particular.

The present shortage of engineers and scientists is created in no small part because creative scientists and engineers have made possible scientific and engineering advances that require a greater number of persons to be employed in these specific fields. At the same time education has made its contribution to a higher level of "creature wants," and, equally important, this same education has made these wants not only desirable but also attainable by our citizens to a degree not yet experienced by any other country since the beginning of recorded history.

This is no time, however, for us to dissipate our energies in boastful and disputed pronouncements of past successes when the pressing problems and vital issues of the present give urgent and sometimes distressing testimony to our tardiness and unpreparedness in providing the kind and amount of education that will enable us as individuals and a nation to play our roles effectively.

These are times when we should be honestly critical of ourselves and should welcome constructive criticism from others. Perhaps our seeming unwillingness to be publicly critical of ourselves and the school program has made possible the Bestors and the Fleschs who from the depths of their ignorance about public education have brought forth some truths among their distortions. The finality with which they speak, in the absence of other objective and critical appraisals, often causes well-meaning persons to accept their whole argument and to accord such unsympathetic and uninformed critics the position of a Moses leading his people out of the wilderness.

Critical issues in secondary schools are certainly in part the result of the critical times in which we live. On the other hand, we should remember that almost every generation has felt that it lived in critical times. Critical issues grow out of critical problems, and critical problems in education generally become critical because they are not faced early and courageously. What we call critical problems can be challenging problems accompanied by vital issues when attacked early with courage, perspiration, and inspiration.

I. At this point I would like to discuss three important problems that face secondary schools:

1. *The pressure of numbers*

In 1956 there were 9.3 million pupils enrolled in the public secondary schools of America, and the end is not in sight. This increase results from increased birth rates and the improved holding power of the schools, for we are trying in this country to give the quality but not necessarily the kind of education that is reserved for the intellectual elite in most countries of the world. We now have eighty-seven per cent to eighty-eight per cent of the age group 14-17 in school. The pressure of numbers

is closely related to the problems of money, teachers, space, and the educational program.

2. *Shortening the curricular lag in this period of change, or developing a program that is in tune with technological and human relations problems of today's world*

- a. What kind of program is needed in the age of automation?
- b. What kind of relationship should exist between science and the humanities?
- c. What effect do the science programs and science teachers have upon the shortage of scientists at the present time?
- d. Do we need laboratories for the teaching of foreign languages, mathematics, and the social sciences?
- e. Are our schools utilizing community resources effectively?

3. *Matching pupils and programs*

- a. Is there too much freedom of selection in the American high school?
- b. Should pupils select subjects or programs? Is it true that many pupils select subjects that are easy rather than programs that will most effectively utilize and develop their talents?
- c. Where do handicapped pupils fit into our secondary program?
- d. Do gifted pupils participate in programs of education that challenge them?
- e. Do parents play an important role in the selection process of subjects or programs?
- f. How effective are our guidance and counseling techniques?

II. What are some of the critical issues that are related to these problems?

1. How should schools be adequately financed?
2. Can the comprehensive high school adequately meet the needs of all pupils? (If you do not think this is an issue in this country as well as in Europe, raise the discussion with your faculty sometime.)
3. How much general education, and how much and what kind of vocational education is needed today?
4. What should be the scope of the secondary school in terms of breadth of offering and length of program? Should all pupils attend the secondary school for the same length of time?
5. To what extent can mechanical aids, such as television, affect the role of the teacher?
6. It is possible to work out a feasible administrative program that will give financial recognition to the outstanding teacher?
7. Are conformity and standardization leading to mediocrity? Deadening conformity to standards is not necessarily an up-grading process in education—it is possible to sell our birthright for conformity and security. We need non-conformists also who will try out new ideas and do more than just keep school.
 - a. Should there be more flexibility in determining teacher-pupil ratios in light of new developments in education? Why would it be heresy under certain conditions for some classes to be under fifteen and for others to be above thirty?
 - b. How do we overcome resistance to change? For example, why can a child, regardless of how gifted, receive no credit toward graduation for work done on the eighth grade level, even though he may be ready for math that is usually taught on the ninth- or tenth-grade level?
 - c. Are our standards of certification in teacher training becoming obsolete? Can you get a French teacher, with several French degrees and who speaks both French and English fluently, certificated to teach French in your high school? Would it be reasonable, under certain conditions, for the head physicist in one of our large corporations to come in and teach a class in high-school physics if he had all of

the technical and personality qualifications but had not taken all the required courses in education?

d. Can a school reach a certain level of efficiency that might entitle it to some flexibility in organization and procedures? (Exceptional people and exceptional circumstances should sometimes be treated in an exceptional manner.)

8. What is the role of the secondary school in the area of human understanding?

III. The role of the secondary principal

1. He should be a human engineer in developing and maintaining good staff relations.

2. He should be a communications engineer.

3. He should be a community and school coordinator.

4. He should know the instructional program of his school firsthand—this means classroom visitation.

5. He should promote experimentation and research.

6. He must be able to afford bold and intelligent leadership that explores new ideas, that objectively appraises results, and that carefully plans next steps.

IV. The secondary school must take a new look at its opportunities and responsibilities

1. Bold, new experiments are necessary in finding better answers to existing problems, to say nothing of the problems yet unborn.

2. Vocational education must take on a new look, with business and industry playing a larger role in specific training through cooperative programs. The school's responsibility will be increasingly directed toward the general rather than specific vocational skills as we move closer to the era of automation.

3. Foreign languages must be studied for the purpose of communication—not just for exercises in mental gymnastics.

4. Adequate programs of special education, even though costly, are less costly than institutional care and the loss of productivity that would result from the absence of such programs.

5. Many gifted pupils could well be a year or two ahead of the normal program at the time of graduation.

6. Pupils must have deep and basic understanding of the society and world in which they live. For example, geography means more than naming capitals and reciting boundary lines—it involves an understanding of geographic factors on man's living.

7. We must find ways of educating more engineers and scientists without concentrating on a narrow specialization that would deny to these specialists an understanding of the humanities and the relation of science to man's over-all responsibility to man in the fulfillment of his individual destiny.

8. Should we explore areas of closer cooperation with our defense program?

9. Should our high-school programs continue to be built on the false assumption that all pupils will continue to graduation, or do we need terminal programs requiring varying lengths of study—possibly two, four, and six years? Under this same point we should give careful attention to the role of the secondary school in providing continuation programs, refresher courses, and programs of general adult education.

10. If our schools are our first line of defense, can our schools do a better job of directing our pupils into programs of study that will challenge their abilities and fully develop their talents? This could be our greatest weapon against domination by Russia and world Communism. Someone has said that Russian education is more ominous than the hydrogen bomb. Joseph Stalin, in his interview with H. G. Wells

back in 1934 was quoted as saying, "Education is a weapon whose effect depends on who holds it in his hands and who is struck with it." This philosophy is still in effect in Russia, for the teacher is regarded as a soldier in the great battle for world domination.

11. Perhaps the greatest problem that faces us in America revolves around the question of whether or not we are losing the will to be free. Are we succumbing to mediocrity or the desire to get something for nothing? We must be certain that our high standard of living does not overshadow the pioneer spirit that has made it possible for us to develop in America, under divine guidance, a great nation with unprecedented opportunity for a new kind of world leadership.

In the fight between the American concept of democracy and Communism, we must remember the role that religion, as well as education, has played in the American story. We do not have to teach a denominational doctrine in order to give expression to the power and force of Divine Guidance. Our schools can be laboratories where pupils express in their everyday living the roles of good citizenship that will be motivated by the religious teachings of the home and their particular church. It would hardly be possible for us to keep alive a willingness to work, to sacrifice, to deny oneself without the motivating force of religion.

12. What will history record relative to the role played by our secondary schools in the last half of the twentieth century? Will our program be geared to the changes of the period? Will we utilize fully in our teaching the technical and socialized inventions of the age in which we live? The answers to these questions will depend greatly upon the leadership that you give.

(Continued from page 280)

4. Opposition was expressed to limiting the term "gifted" to students with a high IQ. It was suggested that consideration be given to including unusually high ability in such areas as art, music, home-making, mechanics, industrial arts, and so on. The provision of improved learning opportunities for all levels of ability requires the cooperation of all members of the staff.

5. In one large city high school, in which there are approximately 500 students with IQs of less than 90, attention is being directed to the reorganization of the instructional program so that these students will be prepared better than heretofore for occupations consistent with their abilities.

6. The improvement of methods of teaching requires a high degree of human engineering. Studying the curriculum may not result in a new curriculum, but it will, in many instances, improve patterns or pathways to use in strengthening the old curriculum.

7. Numerous questions were raised concerning the relationship between salaries and the improvement of instruction. Should merit rating be used? How may we avoid the problem of placing teachers in a position which makes it necessary for them to fight continually for higher salaries? Will schools obtain the best teaching possible without paying the best teachers the highest salaries?

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Second General Session

Saturday, February 23, 2:30 P.M.

Junior High School Section

TERRACE ROOM, SHOREHAM HOTEL

DYNAMIC LEADERSHIP FOR JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL EDUCATION

Presiding: Leland N. Drake, Principal of Mohawk Junior High School, Columbus, Ohio; and Immediate Past President of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Addresses:

THE PRINCIPAL AS A DYNAMIC LEADER

CHRISTIAN JUNG

THE "Junior High-School Principal as a Dynamic Leader" has proved to be about as elusive a topic to discuss as trying to define the qualities making up democratic leadership, but a timely topic it really is. The junior high school, relatively new in the scheme of things, is standing today with sufficient background to make it "respectable," and yet with not enough to bind it to a past so securely that the major efforts of the professional leaders need be given to grappling with a crystallization of many aspects of its educational program. Such is the case encountered by many of our colleagues today in other phases of education.

Let it be understood at the outset that in no way is there intent to underestimate the significant benefits to be derived from a great and glorious past. To neglect to take our past experience into serious consideration when dealing with today's problems would be professionally inexcusable. A look at the past has its purpose, and Robert Louis Stevenson expressed this purpose quite clearly when he said, "To look backward for awhile is to refresh the eye, to restore it, and to render it the more fit for its prime function of looking forward."

While the junior high school does have some short span of past experience to build upon, it seems, indeed, fortunate that we have a large core of professional knowledge and a legion of professional leaders who can carefully and intelligently build a program befitting the youth of the junior high school without being unduly hindered by the shackles of a stereotyped activity. Just as the relative newness of the junior high

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school gives us freedom in building the educational program, it also presses upon us a demand to provide leadership that is truly dynamic. In fact, leadership in such a situation will either be dynamic or, for all practical purposes, it will be no leadership at all. How can it be otherwise when we stand so very close to the beginning of the movement that seems destined to result in the acceptance of the junior high school as an essential part of a proper and adequate education of our youth? No other professional group enjoys a greater degree of freedom in constructing an educational program or planning for the total facility than does the junior high-school group. But as a concomitant of such freedom we are faced with a challenge to be effective and dynamic in terms of leadership.

A brief examination of only two of the big problems confronting us will serve to point up the need for effective professional leadership and will illustrate the challenge for us to be dynamic. No doubt such problems will still be with us in another fifty years, but one thing seems certain today. They do lie ahead of us and, in seeking their solution, we need not feel unnecessarily bound to a particular established pattern.

STAFF PREPARATION

The first problem pertains to the preparation of the staff for the junior high school. This is of immediate and of grave concern to us now. We are confronted not only with the general scarcity of teachers, but also with a specific scarcity of teachers trained for teaching in our junior high schools. I do not mean to imply that not much has been done in consideration of the problem, but, as yet, far too little effort has been expended by either teacher preparatory institutions or professional groups in striving for a vital program of teacher education for those who will work in the junior high school. It seems extremely doubtful that a reasonable, however tentative, solution can be reached without the co-operative efforts of many persons, and you who are the leaders in the field are probably the key persons involved. I have no doubt that, as professional leaders, we must continue to step forth and must take an increasingly active part in any consideration of staff preparation of a pre-service nature; otherwise, we deny our responsibilities and fail to participate in such consideration. This is an example of a problem that does not wait, for an increasing number of junior high schools must be staffed, and, if we do not have a part in preparing such staff, they will be prepared without us. Common practices frequently followed relative to the staff and its preparation for the junior high school leave much to be desired.

THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

A second problem of a general nature that will help in pointing up the need for leadership relates to the educational program of the junior high school. A tremendous amount of energy has already resulted in some excellent practices found in the junior high schools throughout the nation. As of today, however, the door is wide open for the principal

and his staff to set about the task of improving the educational program. Among those suggested by Gruhn and Douglass that are still to be answered are the following: What subjects should be elective? How much departmentalization should there be? How much specialization should be allowed or encouraged? How can we best serve the exploratory function? What fundamentals should be required and how shall they be taught? These and similar questions must be considered by a staff, a school-community, and its leaders. But there are more to be considered, and, to my knowledge, we have found no hard-and-fast rule for a guide. Such things as the core curriculum, study halls, library facilities, reporting, home rooms, athletics, schedules, and music and art activities, for example, are to be considered in building the program. We have no safe haven as, "It has always been this way"—a haven which long ago became threadbare because of its too frequent use by persons lacking in courage, imagination, or professional "know-how." The very fact that we really have little in time-tested practices appropriate for the junior high school makes the challenge for dynamic leadership all the more demanding. The challenge is as demanding when we consider the so-called extracurricular activities. What part are they to play in the effort of the school? Are they of such value in the experiences of youth as to justify making them an integral part of the program both in terms of pupil participation and the use of teacher time? Many of us think so, but common practices relating to costs, scheduling, objectives (or lack of them), and the fact that frequently they are considered as being tacked on to the real program belie over-intent.

While it would be somewhat disastrous to think that we might devise a single best educational program of the junior high school or establish a set pattern of preparation for the teachers, it is not expecting too much to hope that leaders will approach the problems with a sense of deliberateness based on research, experimentation, thoughtful consideration, professional courage, sound evaluation, and a firm belief in and an understanding of the basic principles of our democratic society.

How then shall dynamic leadership for the junior high school be characterized? Such descriptive terms as: being informed, democratic, skillful in human relationships, creative, cooperative, inspirational, scientific—all these would apply. For indeed, when one examines a successful school principal such characteristics appear to have become a part of him and of the manner in which he works with the school-community. Yet the role of the principal as a dynamic leader is best appraised by a direct look at what the *school actually is* rather than a description of what the principal is or what he knows.

THE SCHOOL AND ITS PROGRAM

Let us describe the school and its program that will come as a result of dynamic leadership. We find a staff which, through cooperative efforts, has clearly in mind the goals, purposes, or objectives of the school and a

school-community, which, having been faced with the task, has taken the time and effort to state what it believes about its school and the part it is to play in our democratic society. Such a statement of beliefs not only assists in holding them true to their course, but indicates the ultimate that is desired for the boys and girls of the school. We find a school-community where there is a deep and abiding faith in the worth, value, and intelligence of all persons—where the idea of two heads being better than one is in practice, where there is respect for differences of opinion, where a give-and-take relationship exists, and where an "ourness" about the school prevails.

We will find a staff that knows the school-community, the homes, the churches, the shops, and the people. The school exists primarily for the boys and girls of this community. Thus a knowledge of the community's customs, hopes, aspirations, *etc.* becomes a part of the working basis for the staff in planning for the educational program for youth. This knowledge also enables the school to make maximum use of the resources of the community in teaching. In gaining such knowledge the school has become increasingly aware of other agencies having an active role in the education of youth.

In the school one finds a staff concerned with continuous study of the junior high-school youths, knowing full well that the distinctive characteristics and needs of the group will have an important effect upon the program. Whereas the objectives for the school reflect the more common needs of youth, the statement of needs of the youth making up the student body includes individual as well as common needs. When teachers are sensitive to the real needs of students—both common and individual needs—we have a part of the working basis for a vitalized and meaningful educational program. In the junior high school that reflects dynamic leadership, we find a program resulting, in part, from the serious effort of the staff to meet the physical, emotional, social, intellectual, and moral needs and interests of the early adolescent.

The school is furthermore concerned with the education of the gifted, the slow, indeed with each youth so that he may develop to his maximum. At the same time each youth is assured of an opportunity for experiences in the broad fields of life's activities. Emphasis has been placed on what might be called the "common learning" in order to guarantee adequate and proper preparation in all areas of life. As a result, the program is largely a common one, but it is designed specifically for the individual, because these teachers know that boys and girls learn as individuals even while taught as members of a group.

There are ample opportunities for youth to explore interests and strengths. This is done both in classes and in a variety of activities. Indeed it is done in many phases of the school work in order to strengthen current interests as well as to create new ones, and to interest boys and girls in their own strengths. A broad offering aids in this endeavor and community resources are of great value, but within the classes we will

find good teachers encouraging youth in intellectual exploration—opening doors, as it were, for youth to a host of intellectual activities.

Guidance in the school is something that permeates the entire staff and program. Sufficient time is allowed for the necessary work on the part of teachers, and the necessary facilities and personnel are available to provide services. Guidance here is not thought of as a "fifth wheel," but as an integral part of the real business of the school in helping boys and girls in all phases of growth. The idea of a "home teacher" is put into action by use of blocks of time. Such blocking of the pupil's time has many values, not the least of which is providing some place in the school where time with a teacher is sufficiently long for him to feel he belongs there. If this is done, with the teacher having a small number of students and the necessary materials, services, and assistance, the teacher may implement the most important elements of an organized guidance program.

But in a junior high school with good leadership, regard for the fundamentals is genuine. The staff not only recognizes the need for further effort in the fundamentals, but also knows that a part of their job is to encourage the use of fundamentals in a variety of situations. Although consideration is given to determining the fundamentals for today's youth, increased effort is given to teaching in a meaningful and effective way the traditionally termed fundamental skills of learning. Individual differences in learning are recognized, and an active remedial program operates concurrently with the developmental program in all the fundamentals rather than in a limited few.

Working with the improvement of the educational program has brought other problems to the attention of the staff. The typical schedule with its inflexibility tends to restrict the well-conceived program, and as a result several means are being attempted to make the schedule serve the program rather than served by the program. The barriers, mostly artificial and unnecessary, found between those subjects that the staff believes should be closely related, are giving way slightly. And the length of the total school day and possibly total year will need to be lengthened to accommodate the program held desirable by the school-community for their boys and girls.

I am reminded of a few lines found in the Epilogue of the Briggs and Justman book, which fit both the junior high school today and my position at this very moment,

"Look! there's more to do, more heights to climb,
So much ahead we have no time to lose."

THE PRINCIPAL AS AN EFFECTIVE LEADER OF TEACHERS

ROY L. ARNHEIM

THIS topic must necessarily be discussed from the standpoint of a large city school system with its 49 junior high schools and their 84,000 pupils. The Los Angeles City Schools are spread out over an area of more than 800 square miles. The constant growth and accompanying community conditions that affect these schools are perhaps unique in many respects, but probably are similar in many ways to those of other communities throughout the country. Regardless of these considerations, we may agree on the basic assumption that the principal who is an effective leader does not get so far in front but that his staff can follow only at a great distance.

The secondary-school principal is the pivotal figure within this scene of growth and movement. Along with the flow of families and pupils, there is an ever changing cast of personnel in the school staffs including teachers, clerks, custodians, and administrators themselves. Recently an analysis of secondary-school personnel in Los Angeles revealed that one third of the teachers and one third of the vice-principals and principals are in their first three years of service in their respective positions. A significant number of experienced personnel transfer among the schools every year.

Experienced or newly assigned, the principal faces a truly gigantic challenge in providing effective leadership for teachers. He can look to certain avenues to accomplish this task; namely, (1) through organization of the total school program; (2) through the education program of the school; and (3) through personnel relations within the staff.

LEADERSHIP THROUGH ORGANIZATION OF THE SCHOOL'S PROGRAM

Clear cut efficient routines and staff relationships can contribute immensely to the climate of good feeling and professional security of teachers. It is possible so to define the elements of the well-organized school that will primarily reflect the welfare of the pupils and teachers in the school.

Leadership finds expression through good communication. Communication occurs in this respect through various means including conversation with individuals, planned conferences with individuals or groups, announcements and remarks in meetings, and through written media such as bulletins. Good communication is dependent also upon common meanings and through use of terminology understood and accepted by all concerned. An instrument for effective staff communication is the teacher handbook which contains the basic bulletins and policy statements affecting the school's on-going program. It generally is in loose leaf form

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to permit convenient revision. The teacher finds this handbook of great value at any stage of his experience. Through its index, he can find information on procedure and policy for this school on any matter from "absences" to "zones, safety."

The attitude and work of all members of the office and service staff of the school ought to be directed primarily toward providing service and assistance to teachers. From the negative standpoint, it is possible to see the damage that one individual within the staff can create to the emotional health of the teaching staff. The demeanor of the secretary, custodian, counselor, nurse can have a great effect upon the area of the school program with which they are concerned and which affect the teachers. The attitude of the principal is both contagious and the means for establishing the general climate of morale through the school.

The experienced principal generally comes to the realization that the key to capitalizing on the best potential of the teachers lies in the preparation and use of the Master Program or teaching schedule for the school. Although he may profitably make use of the assistance of others on the staff in making the Master Program, the principal can do much to exert an effective leadership of teachers by identifying himself closely with the Master Program. Briefly, many of the elements contributing to the well-knit school program have a part in the preparation of the Master Program as, for example, the communication between the principal and teachers with reference to their personal interest and desires affecting their teaching program for the coming semester or semesters. The teacher who realizes that she has this opportunity for determining her role in the school program is thereby encouraged to feel a responsibility in common with the administrator for the success of the school program. In making the Master Program, it is imperative for effective leadership that balance be maintained among the various subject fields so that equal support is rendered in order to make possible equal contributions of all fields toward a well-rounded educational program.

Most schools must provide for turnover of staff personnel. It is essential that the school be sufficiently well organized to insure continuity and stability regardless of change of teachers in the various classrooms and personnel in the offices of the school. An on-going program of orientation is needed to meet the needs of newcomers. Orientation has a part in the leadership role of the principal and, therefore, must contain elements both informative and hospitable in nature. The principal must be concerned not only in turnover with those who are coming in new, but also with those who are leaving to go elsewhere, making sure that the departure of anyone, regardless of his position or significance in the school, may be to that person's advantage as well as to the welfare of this school. Our school system provides for annual orientation and review through meetings conducted in each school during two days prior to the opening of the fall semester. New teachers and experienced teachers gain

benefit from these meetings. The areas or topics covered include those common to all, as well as those affecting specific problems, especially for the benefit of new teachers. Subsequent institute meetings and other in-service workshops during the year enable the principal to exert his leadership through planning of training programs for each teacher.

A program of public relations has as its main purpose the improvement and maintenance of communication and understanding between the school and the general public or its representative groups. The principal has a major responsibility, including personal participation, but he must be sure that public relations contribute to the improvement of instruction in the school or at least to the general effectiveness of the school. Teachers should be made acquainted with and, wherever possible, be given opportunities to participate in programs of public relations. The teacher who is thus involved will not only appreciate the significance of the program, but also will be a potential asset in the program. Of course, it should be emphasized repeatedly that a most effective public relations avenue lies in the teacher preparing his pupils to answer the frequent question, "What did you do (learn) in school today?"

LEADERSHIP THROUGH THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM OF THE SCHOOL

As an educational leader in the school, the principal must accept as basic the importance of giving comparable recognition to all subject fields. Although his own experience probably has been limited to only a few of the many subjects included in the school program, he first must make it apparent to all that he recognized the part played by all subjects and that he is interested in promoting the success of all subject fields. Among the practical means for achieving this objective are frequent and regular visits to the classes within the various subject departments in the school. The principal can be effective through participation in departmental meetings, personal reading and study, comments directed toward publicizing the contribution of the various subject fields in faculty meetings and on those occasions when he speaks to groups in public, and, last but not least, in his personal efforts to convey his interest to the teachers of the various subject fields.

The best possible program of education can be achieved partly through planning the departmental and the Master Program for the school. This planning needs to take into account not only the interest and intention of individual teachers, but also the potential contribution that each can be expected to make. Opportunities should be provided for those concerned to participate jointly with administration in this planning to the greatest possible extent.

Equipment and materials of instruction have a great effect on teachers, experienced or new. The principal needs to make provision for them in advance of, or at least concurrent with, the needs that teachers have for them. Distribution on an efficient and impartial basis is indeed

a challenge to the most resourceful administrator. The principal will find many leadership dividends in anticipating the needs for equipment and instructional materials and for determining the best time and place for making them available.

Supervisory assistance in its various forms is desirable for all teachers regardless of experience. In a large school system the principal will want to make full use of the services of supervisors from the central offices. In this instance, the principal should not only perform as middleman in obtaining the services, but should also be a participant himself along with vice-principals and department chairmen with reference to improving his contribution to the particular subject field affected. In his supervisory function, the principal can prepare himself to give continual assistance in the various subject fields and to the individual teacher in his instructional function. He can perhaps be more effective in those fields in which he has had experience, but he should not neglect any of the other subject fields even if his contribution is restricted to apparent interest.

An in-service training program has been found essential both within the school and from sources outside of the school, the latter including institutes, workshops, and college courses. In a large school system the principal and teacher are subject to standard requirements with reference to in-service training. However, insofar as they may determine, the teacher and principal have an opportunity to relate whatever in-service training is available to the improvement of the instructional program of the school and to the professional growth of the teacher. With an increase of the percentage of new teachers in schools, there has been an incentive to organize in-service training within the school for the benefit of new teachers. It is natural to expand this program to include experienced teachers who generally express appreciation for the opportunity for review, to contribute, and to discuss new methods.

Leadership opportunities can be provided for many teachers, some of which may be terminal or career for the individual and some of which may be promotional in the process of his preparation for administration. The position of department chairman, organization sponsor, class or grade sponsor, counselor, registrar, health coordinator, and student activities coordinator are among the leadership possibilities for experience and individual contribution. Provision can be made for additional pay for some of these leadership positions in terms of "coordinator" assignments. Additionally, time can be provided each school for these positions, full or fractional, separate from the regular teaching norm.

LEADERSHIP THROUGH PERSONAL RELATIONS

The "open-door" policy accomplishes two purposes; *first*, the feeling of the school that the administrative head is present and, *second*, that he is available. Quite often there is no actual need to see the principal, but all teachers can know that the opportunity is there under relaxed and

natural conditions. Communication is made much easier by this arrangement.

Orientation and periodic review are needed for all teachers, new and experienced. The latter group is more often than not especially grateful for the opportunity to participate in these in-service education sessions. An experienced teacher can be an extremely valuable resource helping her fellow teachers in regularly scheduled meetings as contrasted with the unpredictable results of individual contacts. A valuable instrument for consistently informing teachers on school organization is the teacher handbook containing basic information, usually in the form of a loose-leaf folder to make revisions or additions possible. The teacher handbook, referred to earlier in this presentation with reference to communication, becomes of additional value through its use as a reliable frame of reference for orientation and review.

A policy committee elected by the faculty and meeting regularly with the principal affords a strong morale element in the administrator-teacher relationship. Generally this group may have the whole range of school problems for discussion possibilities, although there may be mutual recognition of the value of concentrating on certain problems. Reports of these meetings become a matter for the group's discretion in determining how to balance opportunity for frank discussion with the rights of the whole faculty to be informed of progress in policy through this committee.

Rating of individuals new in teaching is becoming more of a problem to the principal with the increasing number of newcomers on each faculty. In a large school the principal may need to share this responsibility with vice-principals and department chairmen, although it is important that each teacher know that the basic rating is done by the principal. Classroom visits by the principal to all new teachers is imperative along with at least one personal conference each rating period. Professional objectivity can well be combined with friendly concern for the upgrading of each teacher's competence.

Experienced teachers are in need of renewed acquaintance with the principal. Recognition and evaluation of their work can be done concurrently. Almost every experienced teacher is stimulated and appreciative of the direct interest in her work conveyed by the principal's visit and conversation. Notes of appreciation from the principal, in connection with teachers' service beyond the line of routine duty, pay real dividends. Expression of commendation in faculty meetings, in bulletins, and other occasions are deserved and provide uncalculable compensation.

Opportunities for advancement must be present and available for all who give evidence of potential ability. There are many avenues in the school program by which the teacher may gain breadth or depth of experience while contributing to the welfare of the school. It should be recognized by the faculty that this matter is twofold: *first*, that opportunities must be given sufficiently to train potential administrators and,

second, that the school program must have the benefit of competent and continuing staff service. Both can be achieved with careful administrative planning and faculty understanding. The principal, also, extends the effect of his leadership to the degree that individuals who are given these opportunities are encouraged or enabled to solve their problems fully and not drop short of that conclusion by merely collecting and submitting information. They should have the benefit of producing solutions to problems and, to the extent of their authority, have experience in putting the solution into actual use. Beyond this step is the opportunity for evaluation and refinement of practice into final solutions.

Social and recreational activities can have great effect upon the morale of any teacher and staff member. The evidence of democratic planning and the pleasure of working out the various details together cultivate a feeling of belonging even in the most reserved individuals. There should be periodic occasions where provision is made for all members to participate along with special activities enjoyed by smaller groups. Refreshments in conjunction with faculty meetings, coffee in the office prior to the holidays, and receptions by the PTA are among rich possibilities.

Availability in any situation, for any emergency, by the principal is a capstone to his role as leader of teachers. The occasion may only be an infrequent one, but the readiness of the administration head to meet it will help much to establish for him the esteem which he desires and needs for effective leadership. An attitude of helpfulness can be made apparent with no loss of effect. Informal interest can be displayed short of prying into personal business. Sincerity and genuine warmth are perceived and valued. Finally, all that the effective leader-principal does in this role is capped by the evident fact that he does for all, not just a chosen few. Thus the principal becomes in attitude and action, an effective leader.

THE PRINCIPAL'S RESPONSIBILITY FOR AN EFFECTIVE GUIDANCE PROGRAM

JACK PRANCE

THE responsibility of the principal in establishing and maintaining an effective guidance program in the school is one of the most important roles that he must play. Guidance is a service to the pupils, parents, and teachers of the school, and it is the duty of the principal to provide a service as adequate as the money and facilities will permit.

Among the specific responsibilities of the principal in establishing an effective guidance program are (1) selection of trained, well-qualified personnel for the guidance staff; (2) provision of time and space for the staff to operate effectively; (3) procurement of materials and supplies

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necessary to a successful guidance program; and (4) establishment of a framework or organization within which guidance functions may operate successfully.

The selection of guidance personnel is an involved one. Whole chapters could be written on this subject alone. Because of lack of space only a few suggestions will be given. The principal must be sure that persons chosen to work in the field of guidance have a thorough understanding of child growth and development. He must choose persons in whom teachers and pupils have confidence and whose good intentions are reinforced by scientific training.

Many school systems provide time for guidance services. In others, the principal must plan for time to be allocated for this service from the normal complement of his instructional staff. In some school systems the function of the guidance program rests entirely on the shoulders of the home-room and classroom teachers.

Supplies, equipment, and materials should include sufficient test material, records, and space for filing. A good professional library and a subscription to at least one good guidance service can usually be secured through service clubs in the community to supplement any funds provided by the school system.

Whether the guidance program of the school is counselor-centered or home-room-centered, skillful scheduling on the part of the principal will result in better guidance practices. A sample schedule for five seventh-grade classes follows. This schedule assumes a six-period day with a teaching load of five classes. The master schedule for a large school would consist of several groups similar to this.

PERIODS OF THE DAY

<i>Teacher</i>	<i>H.R.</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6**</i>
A (Lang. Arts)	Group 7A	7A	7E	7D	7C	7B	Planning
B (Soc. Stud.)	Group 7B	7B	7A	7E	7D	7C	"
C (Science)	Group 7C	7C	7B	7A	7E	7D	"
D (Math.)	Group 7D	7D	7C	7B	7A	7E	"
E (Art, Music, (etc.))	Group 7E*	7E	7D	7C	7B	7A	"

*This may be a different teacher each twelve or eighteen weeks

**The pupils would have physical education during this period

Some advantages of this type of schedule are:

1. All of the teachers are responsible for the same pupils.
2. Counselors and other specialized personnel who are concerned with the welfare of the pupils in this group are able to meet with all teachers of the pupil during school hours.
3. Case conferences are easily arranged.
4. Reaction to at least five different teachers by a pupil will give insight to a personality when these reactions can be shared and discussed.

5. Communication channel is very good.

6. Group guidance, such as assemblies, may be scheduled without interference with the rest of the school program.

If specialized personnel is not allocated to a school, an organization, such as the one described here, can be used to develop a successful guidance program. One of the five teachers can be encouraged to obtain specialized training so that he will be of more service to the teachers within this group.

Aside from the physical facilities, personnel, and mechanics of scheduling, the principal has other responsibilities, many of which are nebulous intangibles, and it is to these that the principal should turn most of his efforts.

The concept of guidance is new, and, on every faculty, there will be varying reactions to it. Some teachers will look on it as a frill of education which will soon pass away. Others will be fearful of the guidance staff and jealous of their own prestige among the pupils. A few will accept guidance as a benefit and will use the staff and all the guidance services to help them become better teachers of youth. One of the responsibilities of the principal is to inculcate attitudes toward guidance so that teachers can accept the service. He must so lead the guidance staff that they in turn will sell their service through serving.

Teachers with their differing philosophies need, and frequently desire, leadership in developing common understandings. One of the best ways in which the principal can bring about this development of a philosophy which is acceptable to the majority of the faculty is through in-service training. Such in-service training as suggested here needs no outside authority or specialist as a leader. The type of in-service training needed is that in which the principal keeps himself available to the faculty for group discussions. One regular day each week should be reserved exclusively for group conferences with teachers. The composition of these groups should consist of the teachers having common planning periods. These small groups become ideal working committees for recognizing school problems, curriculum planning, and exchanging of techniques. Most important of all, out of these informal gatherings evolves a common philosophy toward problems, curriculum, and guidance.

The principal is responsible for creating *esprit d'corps* among the faculty. His own attitudes are reflected; therefore, the success of the guidance program within a school depends in large part upon the principal's being a guidance minded person. He must have faith in the ability of his staff as a whole and must be willing to delegate guidance responsibilities to persons who have demonstrated their love for and understanding of adolescents. He must skillfully select teachers whose philosophy is compatible to that of the school. He must constantly promote good relationship between the teachers. He must know each staff member individually and must assign teachers to positions in which they will be happiest and most effective.

The principal has the responsibility of constantly providing opportunities for teachers to improve. In order to do this, he must recognize the difficulties under which the teachers work and attempt to reduce teacher loads, tension, multiple assignments, strains, *etc.* By keeping in constant contact with his staff, his parents, and his pupils, he must spearhead the revision of the school program in the light of changing needs. He must be in contact with the resources of the community and encourage teachers to use these facilities. In short, the principal must be a counselor to all members of his faculty.

The principal should be able to interpret the behavior of pupils in light of their growth and development. He should know and be able to help teachers and parents understand why youngsters of this age react as they do. He should recognize the importance of developing proper attitudes toward rules, regulations, other people, and work. He should help those who supervise boys and girls inculcate a true sense of values.

In conclusion, the responsibilities of the principal for the success of a guidance program are multiple. *First*, he must furnish personnel with the physical facilities and the opportunity to render guidance services. *Second*, he must furnish leadership in the development of a school philosophy and a spirit of working together so that teachers are willing to help each other develop into more understanding teachers. *Third*, he must give leadership to trained guidance workers so that they can sell their services by giving service. *Fourth*, he must understand the nature and development of the pupil.

(Continued from page 285)

8. The biggest improvements in staff utilization will, in all likelihood, result from the adoption of a cluster of activities of the type proposed in the new publication: *An Exciting Profession—New Horizons for Secondary School Teachers*. (This 36-page pamphlet is available from the Commission on the Experimental Study of the Utilization of the Staff in the Secondary School, 200 Gregory Hall, Urbana, Illinois.) A cluster might include, for example, the utilization of certain types of teaching assistance, the reorganization of a number of administrative patterns, the utilization of certain mechanical aids to instruction, and one or more types of revisions of the curriculum. As it is pointed out in the pamphlet mentioned, "Instead of responding indiscriminately to pressures resulting from the teacher shortage, experimental studies should be undertaken to learn better ways of utilizing the teachers we have and may be able to obtain so that the quality of education can be improved. Educators must continuously explore designs for the improvement of instruction." (page 32)

9. The improvement of instruction involves intensive evaluation in terms of the objectives sought. New techniques and procedures should, of course, be viewed in the light of their relation to desirable conditions for learning.

Senior High School and Junior College Section

MAIN BALLROOM, SHOREHAM HOTEL

NEW AND SIGNIFICANT PROJECTS AND TRENDS IN
SECONDARY EDUCATION

Presiding: James E. Nancarrow, Principal, Senior High School, Upper Darby, Pennsylvania; Member of the Executive Committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Address:

SCIENCE TEACHING IMPROVEMENT PROGRAM

JOHN R. MAYOR

THE national interest in the improvement of science and mathematics teaching is unprecedented in American education. In 1957 as much as fifteen million dollars will be spent in this country on projects intended to contribute to the better teaching of science and mathematics in schools at all levels, but especially in the high schools. This activity is seen in best perspective if viewed as the result of the great technical and scientific achievements of the United States. It should be clearly recognized that the present problems related to the teaching of science and mathematics are the result of success, including the success of the schools, and not to failure.

Among the activities of government, industry, and professional societies is that of the American Association for the Advancement of Science represented by the Science Teaching Improvement Program which was made possible by a grant from the Carnegie Corporation of New York. A basic assumption in the Science Teaching Improvement Program is that schools can better serve the people of America if scientists accept a responsibility for learning more about, for maintaining an active interest in, and for contributing to the planning of school programs, the preparation of teachers, and the determination of certification requirements. Because the membership of the American Association for the Advancement of Science is, in considerable part, composed of scientists in colleges and universities, the Association's program is directed to working with these people in better acceptance of their responsibility for school programs and teacher education.

The Science Teaching Improvement Program is concerned that the teaching of science and mathematics at all levels should reflect modern scientific developments and needs, and that the science programs in the schools be adequate for all youth in these schools. One of the principal

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interests is with science in the general education program. It is essential that education at all levels should give a better understanding of science to larger numbers of students who will become business and community leaders in a society in which science plays an increasingly important part in economic life and decisions of government. The American Association for the Advancement of Science is also interested in a high quality of science teaching for those who show promise of becoming the scientific and technical leaders of tomorrow. Although present shortages indicate that this country now, and will in the future, need more persons with special training in science, it is important that there not result from this present concern undesirable emphasis upon science in school programs. It is felt that the gifted should be encouraged to great achievement by the time of graduation from high school, but it is not believed that all of the gifted by any means should be encouraged to enter science.

Among the activities of Science Teaching Improvement Program which may be of greatest interest to members of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals are the "Study on the Use of Science Counselors," a special project on regional consultants to colleges and universities, financed by a grant from the General Electric Educational and Charitable Fund; the cooperation with the Educational Advisory Board of the National Academy of Sciences and National Research Council, especially in the commonly known "Arlington County Project," and in activities in the area of educational television.

A brochure describing the "Study on the Use of Science Counselors" is available. This Study is being conducted with the cooperation of the Universities of Nebraska, Oregon, and Texas and Pennsylvania State University, and approximately twenty school systems in the neighborhoods of these universities. In this Study consultant services are provided to the schools. The consultants are named as members of the university staffs, but are working with the advice and assistance of state departments of education.

In the regional consultant project, twenty regions have been designated, each with a college scientist who is available to visit colleges and universities in his region, to encourage and assist in the development of improved science teacher education programs and closer working relationships with secondary-school personnel. In their visits to colleges, the consultants will be interested in learning about secondary-school programs and problems.

The Arlington County Project represents perhaps better than any other in the country what can be accomplished in the improvement of science and mathematics teaching when wide-spread community support is obtained from women's and civic clubs, parent-teacher organizations, and scientists. All of you would find interest in a careful examination of what has been done in this Project in the Washington area.

The development of educational television has been so rapid that it is almost impossible to maintain currency with even the most important

experiments now in process. Quite a number of these are devoted to the improvement of science teaching at the secondary-school level. The American Association for the Advancement of Science and the National Academy of Sciences and National Research Council have embarked upon a study of these experiments, with the hope that assistance may be given in a way which will make more certain that the vast amounts of money now being used will result in the sound improvement of science programs. Among the experiments in science and mathematics of particular interest are those in Hagerstown, Maryland; Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania; the Massachusetts Institute of Technology; and Washington University, St. Louis.

Because of the needs of our time, it seems essential that our high schools should make it possible for boys and girls, with the interest and aptitude, to study three or four years of science and mathematics in secondary school. The recent Conference on Mathematics Instruction, sponsored by the American Association for the Advancement of Science, recommended that secondary-school mathematics programs be planned so that students specializing in science and engineering would be prepared to study a course in analytic geometry and calculus in the freshman year in college. It was also recommended that, wherever possible, such a course should be offered in the secondary schools. In the larger high schools the most common pattern of course offerings in science appears to be ninth-grade general science, tenth-grade biology, with chemistry and physics available in the eleventh and twelfth grades. Studies mentioned earlier and curriculum planning of special groups are considering ways of modifying and strengthening this program. Among the many interesting proposals that are being brought forth is one that the study of biology should follow physics and chemistry, rather than precede it. The advocates of this change believe that a more dynamic biology in keeping with the spirit of present-day biological research could result.

The most satisfactory answer to secondary-school programs in mathematics and science will probably be obtained by study groups representing secondary-school teachers, administrators, and active research scientists in university, college, and industrial positions. The new demands of science make it essential that secondary schools seek and secure the cooperation of active scientists to a much greater extent than has ever been true before. The expanded program of summer and academic-year institutes of the National Science Foundation will provide a good opportunity for high-school science and mathematics teachers to become better acquainted with modern developments in science, and for the colleges to acquire a more satisfactory understanding of the problems of secondary-school science and mathematics. This program of institutes is one of the major developments in teacher education of this century. Assurance can be given that scientists in colleges, universities, and industry would welcome the opportunity to meet with high-school personnel to talk about

the teaching of science and mathematics. In most instances they will probably wait for an invitation from you. Whether or not any changes in high-school programs would result from such conferences, there would at least be the advantage that in one area teachers at all levels, from elementary to graduate, would have an opportunity to consider common problems and the development of better organized sequences.

OUR STUDY ON ECONOMIC EDUCATION

GALEN JONES

AT THE annual meeting of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals two years ago I was privileged to report on the establishment of the Council for Advancement of Secondary Education, and on the program of work contemplated by the Council under its first project, Study on Economic Education. This latter includes basic studies to determine the specific needs in economic education, and the production of a series of teaching-learning units based on the needs so revealed. I am happy to report now that the basic studies have been completed and published; and that, in addition, two of the teaching-learning units projected have been written and are being made ready for experimental use in high schools across the country.

What is economic literacy? In its Study on Economic Education, the Council has as its primary purpose the carrying out of a research and writing program to assist in providing for our young people a more adequate education for *economic literacy*. As the Council uses it, this term denotes the possession of basic equipment needed by the citizen-consumer for intelligent and responsible participation in the everyday activities of a modern economy. Such equipment comprises chiefly (1) understandings and skills required for effective performance of citizen-consumer functions; and (2) familiarity with economic terminology sufficient for intelligent newspaper and magazine reading.

In a search for fresh guides to the essential content of high-school economic education, the Council projected and carried out, at least to a tentative conclusion, two research studies. (1) With the purpose of identifying those economic concepts and relationships, an understanding of which is indispensable for economic literacy, it went for suggestions to competent members of major economic groups in our society, who presumably would be prepotently aware of the practical demands of the economy on the citizen in information and understandings. (2) On the assumption that economic terms in common use in the press should become part of the general reader's vocabulary, and also that these terms

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represent concepts suggestive of a desirable content for economic education, the Council made an analysis for economic terms of an extensive sampling of widely read newspapers and magazines.

*Key Understandings in Economics.*¹ This study presents a compilation of the suggestions of some 2,000 people in the economic front lines as to what the basic and most significant economic understandings are. Leaders in agriculture, business, labor, and education—including economists and teachers of economics—contributed about 10,000 topics. Painstakingly compiled under fourteen categories into a composite list of eighty-eight topics, these were then submitted for evaluation to judges competent in economics. A total of 1,045 judgments was made on the importance for economic literacy of an understanding of each topic.

The composite list of economic topics is a synthesis of the views of a large number of members of major economic groups. Embracing most of the key understandings in economics, it should prove helpful to those concerned with economic education in answering the vital question of what to teach. The Council has used this list as a basis for the selection of topics on which it is preparing a series of teaching-learning units for high-school use.

*Economics in the Press.*² This Council study sought an answer to the question—what verbal equipment does economic literacy demand? What basic economic vocabulary must the general reader possess to comprehend newspaper and magazine articles adequately? The Council undertook an extensive canvass of the content of the American press in order to determine the nature and amount of its economic terminology. It analyzed, for economic terms, an aggregate of 2,332 issues of 62 publications published from 1950 to 1954. This elaborate search yielded five lists of economic terms—from national magazines, 244 terms; general newspaper, 459; farm journals, 394; labor union journals, 351; and company publications, 235. The terms in the lists are ranked according to the number of different articles in which each appeared.

This press survey makes clear that, in view of the number of different economic terms likely to be encountered as well as their frequency of use, adequate comprehension in newspaper and magazine reading requires some familiarity with economic terminology. The inference that the Council draws from this is that a practical understanding of the meaning and connotations of at least the commonly used terms is requisite for economic literacy. These findings are being employed by the Council as a guide to the choice of terminology and concepts for its teaching-learning units.

CASE ECONOMIC LITERACY SERIES

As the culminating step in its Study on Economic Education, the Council has planned the CASE Economic Literacy Series of booklets for

¹Washington, D. C.: Council for Advancement of Secondary Education. 1956. 76 pp. \$1.

²Washington, D. C.: Council for Advancement of Secondary Education. 1956. 94 pp. \$1.

secondary schools. The booklet rather than the book form was chosen for its greater flexibility and, therefore, easier incorporation into existing social studies and business education courses. The first two booklets in the series have already been written and are now being put through a rigorous process of criticism and revision. After experimental use in a large number of schools, they will be published and, it is hoped, widely used in the high schools of the country.

Capitalism and the American Economy. This first unit pictures in broad strokes our distinctive economy as it is found in operation today. The primary purpose of the unit, of course, is to lead the student to a clear understanding of American capitalism. A further purpose, however, is by this means to give him that firm grasp of economic principles needed for intelligent decision-making and action.

In connection with a treatment of the foundations of capitalism, the booklet presents a description of our economy as a framework within which are carried on the basic functions of *what* and how much to produce, *how*, *for what purpose*, and *for whom*. An elementary understanding of the automatic market mechanism is essential to the unit. With the help of a simplified diagram, two aggregate relationships emphasized by economists are examined—the income-expenditures analysis and the equation of exchange. Applications of the principle of alternative cost run through the booklet. By these means the Council seeks so to equip the student that he will be stimulated to think for himself in economic matters, and thus to contribute toward constant improvement of our dynamic capitalism.

Capitalism and Its Competitors. The focus in this booklet is on capitalism, as its title suggests. The Council seeks indirectly to give high-school students an insight into the structure and achievements of American capitalism by comparing and contrasting it with communism, fascism, and socialism. The theory and practice of each of these modern forms of economic organization are examined. Then each form of economy is critically appraised, and comparisons with capitalism are drawn.

"Communism" is one of the most frequently used economic terms in the American press. The Soviet system poses so great a threat to our national security that we as a people must understand its nature and purpose in order to combat it successfully. Unquestionably, a knowledge of other economic systems will help us better to appreciate our own. Macaulay's dictum that "no one understands his own language until he knows at least one other" is applicable here if the word "economy" is substituted for the word "language."

Subsequent units to be prepared. Currently the staff, in consultation with our Board of Trustees, is projecting plans for subsequent units. The additional areas under consideration are (1) competition in the American economy, (2) industrial relations, (3) agriculture's basic yet changing role, and (4) the economic interdependence of peoples.

The Council's Economic Literacy Series of booklets is planned to cover the major areas of introductory economics. Each unit in the series is intended to fill a present need in high-school economic education for teaching-learning material on the topic treated. Accordingly, those areas in which adequate booklets are already available we shall not enter. Our choice of subject matter for teaching-learning units is governed in the main by the judgments contained in our Composite Evaluated List of Basic Economic Topics. Our purpose is to develop units dealing individually or in combination with topics, an understanding of which our consultants considered to be of high importance for economic literacy.

OUR EXPERIMENTAL STUDIES ON UTILIZATION OF STAFF

J. LLOYD TRUMP

ALTERNATIVES

EDUCATIONAL leaders must help professional staffs, and lay citizens in every community face alternatives which confront secondary schools. These alternatives brought by momentous changes—many more students to educate, much more knowledge to teach, and more competition for tax funds when there is significant shrinkage in the purchasing power of the dollar—are accentuated because it is increasingly difficult, and may become impossible in some areas, to obtain an adequate supply of qualified teachers.

The impact of the teacher shortage is felt by practically everyone in this audience. In some schools the entire staff has changed in one year. Turnover rates of thirty per cent or more are not uncommon even in relatively wealthy school systems. It is difficult to calculate the extra time, money, and physical energy that administrators expend these days to assemble a staff at the beginning of the year and to find replacements during the year.

In spite of the fact that competition has forced communities to raise salaries, publish pamphlets to interest teachers, and provide more attractive living and working conditions, many school systems have still found it necessary to increase class sizes, lower qualification standards, especially for teachers of certain subjects, and discontinue some subjects and extra-class activities.

The shortage of teachers will become worse rather than better in the years ahead. The alternatives are clear. School systems that cling to traditional ways of doing things will face the necessity of employing progressively poorer teachers; on the other hand, those that exercise imagin-

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ation, ingenuity, and experimental approaches in seeking answers to the problems may cause the quality of education to rise with the increase in numbers of students.

HISTORY OF THE COMMISSION

Working under the assumption that even though junior and senior high schools and teacher education institutions utilize improved methods of recruiting able young men and women for the teaching profession and that school systems make teaching more attractive by paying higher salaries, the probability of meeting the teacher shortage only by such efforts is small, the Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals has for some time been seeking other solutions to the shortage problem. The committee realized that the shortage problem was further complicated by the fact that professions other than teaching are also seeking the services of an increasing number of able young people. Early contacts with representatives of the Fund for the Advancement of Education indicated considerable interest in supporting experimental projects.

Announcement was made at the 1956 NASSP convention in Chicago that a preliminary grant of funds had been received from the Fund for the Advancement of Education to sponsor experimental studies of staff utilization in local schools. During the present academic year, grants totaling approximately \$140,000 had been received.

The NASSP Executive Committee in May, 1956, appointed a Commission on the Experimental Study of the Utilization of the Staff in the Secondary School. Dr. C. W. Sanford, Dean of Admissions of the University of Illinois, who had been active in this program as Chairman of the Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development, was named Chairman of the Commission. Eight other members were appointed to the committee. Your speaker, who had been serving as Professor of Education, Head of Teacher Placement, and Chairman of the Division of Educational Administration of the College of Education at the University of Illinois, was asked to serve as Director of the Commission.

THE PRESENT SITUATION IN STAFF UTILIZATION

In the typical school situation, there is much similarity in what teachers do. Most teachers provide services to about the same number of students. There is an almost universal belief that all purposes of instruction are accomplished best in classes that do not exceed twenty-five students. Most teachers are expected to teach five classes per day and to perform other school duties including sponsoring extraclass activities. Much standardization exists with respect to such matters as salary policies, certification standards, sequences of courses, and use of the Carnegie Unit to control and measure time spent in class. School facilities typically are planned to perpetuate this *status quo*.

The foregoing practices may or may not be educationally sound. Certainly many excellent achievements occur under the present situation. However, a profession that is scientific in approach re-examines practices from time to time. What we do is not necessarily wrong, but further studies are needed to see if what we are doing is the best that we can do.

SOME BASIC ASSUMPTIONS

The Commission approached the task of developing experimental studies with a number of basic assumptions. Among these are the following:

1. Methods of teaching should be related to the purposes of instruction.
2. Teaching is a complex art; different levels of competence and training are needed for the various functions teachers now perform and which they are likely to do in the future.
3. Teachers differ in their interests and abilities to perform the various functions of teaching; the quality of teaching may be improved by recognizing these differences.
4. Although the fundamental purpose of experimentation in staff utilization is the improvement of instruction, any study must also consider the feelings of teachers; teaching should become more interesting, rewarding, and less difficult.
5. Unless changes are made in the use of teachers we now have and are likely to obtain in the next few years, the present trend to increase class sizes, eliminate courses, and employ more and more teachers with inadequate preparation will become accepted policy; such developments will cause deterioration in the quality of education.
6. Instead of responding indiscriminately to pressures resulting from the teacher shortage, experimental studies should be undertaken to learn better ways of utilizing teachers.

SOME ILLUSTRATIVE STUDIES

The Commission has at the present time approved nine experimental studies which in turn have received financial support from the Fund for the Advancement of Education. These studies are located in secondary schools in Evanston, Illinois; Newton, Massachusetts; Richwood, West Virginia; Beecher, Illinois; St. Paul, Minnesota; Westside Community School, Omaha, Nebraska; Syosset, New York; Roseville, Minnesota; and Snyder, Texas. Because of limitations of time, I shall comment briefly on only five of these studies. All of the studies will be discussed in greater detail by persons from the respective school systems in three discussion groups arranged by the Curriculum Planning and Development Committee on Monday afternoon, Tuesday afternoon, and Wednesday morning. I hope many of you will be able to attend these sessions and hear more about the studies being conducted in these centers.

The experiment in the Evanston Township High School is designed to discover possible uses of closed-circuit television as an important educational potential for the better utilization of qualified and effective teachers. In the early stages of the experiment, instruction is being given in typewriting and sophomore English-speech classes, with a third studio being provided for the use of other teachers. Students have been trained to serve as cameramen and switchers. Two typewriting classes

are taught simultaneously with the aid of television. Thirty-five students are located in one room with the teacher where cameras are focused on the teacher and on the blackboard. In the viewing room, with an additional thirty-five students, a pre-focused camera with wide-angle lens is located in the upper corner of the room so that the teacher is able to see by means of a monitor the students in the viewing room. Students in the viewing room are being supervised by an office clerk. The teacher who formerly taught four typewriting classes is now able to do the formal instruction in two periods, handle the same number of students, and thus has more time for preparation, evaluation, and conferences with individual students. In the speech experiment three rooms have been joined together with television equipment. Students rotate among the rooms on schedule so periodically they are in the same room as the teacher. Students in the viewing rooms supervised by cadet teachers are able to ask questions through strategically located portable microphones. A red light flashes in front of the teacher whenever a student in one of the viewing rooms wishes to make a comment or ask a question. It is too early, of course, to indicate final results of the experimentation. Certainly, much is being learned by the teachers involved as they experiment with different procedures.

English students in the Newton High School, Newtonville, Massachusetts, at times are being grouped across curricula and across years for instruction in such common learnings as study habits, spelling, vocabulary building, paragraph organization, letter writing, note taking, background lectures of the speech program, the world of books, and many others. The teachers hope to demonstrate that certain subject matter is better taught and more successfully mastered in a program that frees teachers and pupils from the traditional approaches and the conventional barriers of curricula and years. Projects that integrate the work of teachers, subject matter, and material aids are being developed. Assisted by two co-teachers, six English teachers are formulating procedures for working effectively with larger groups. The primary goal is to increase the amount of information the pupil receives, and the measure of knowledge he retains from year to year. At the same time, they hope to improve teaching methods and produce greater economy in the use of teacher talent and schoolroom space. The present demonstration in English anticipates similar studies and experimentation in other departments as well.

The use of laboratory assistants in driver education classes is being studied in Richwood, West Virginia. Effects upon the quality of instruction when the classwork is given by a fully qualified driver education teacher while the behind-the-wheel phase of instruction is given by a carefully selected bus driver working closely with the teacher is being evaluated. The teacher, freed from the necessity of spending energy in behind-the-wheel instruction with four students at a time, is able to teach business education subjects for which he is also qualified. Carefully

devised experimental techniques using control groups will measure the effects of this program upon the students, teacher, and bus driver. Cooperation of the state department of education, state police, representatives of the West Virginia Driver Education Association, and consultants from West Virginia University has been secured.

In Beecher, Illinois, staff and community members are trying out a number of ways in which a small high school can utilize staff members more effectively. The number of different classes and activities which teachers usually handle in small schools is often excessive in relation to that in larger places. Through the use of community members as assistants in some activities, extra clerical help, changes in course offerings, provision of correspondence courses, use of modern teaching aids, use of high-school students as teaching assistants, and other devices, the staff will attempt to discover ways of improving instruction, and making teaching more attractive in smaller schools.

In St. Paul, Minnesota, a group of students from the upper one fourth of their high-school graduating classes, who for one reason or another did not go on to college, will be selected carefully from the standpoint of being potentially well qualified to enter training. These students will then enroll in teacher education institutions in the city and also work from five to fifteen hours per week, depending on the year in school, as teacher assistants. Thus, the school system hopes to tap a new source of supply for teachers, provide teacher assistants, and introduce new elements in the teacher training program. The effects of all of these adaptations will be studied carefully.

Other studies which I do not have time to discuss in this presentation include the use of tape recordings, the effects of improved building utilization, elimination of study halls, the use of non-professional assistants to supervise laboratories while students do independent research, and re-organization of the curriculum to make possible larger classes during certain phases of the unit method of teaching.

As you leave the meeting room this afternoon, you will receive a copy of a brochure published last week under authorization of the Commission, with financial support by the Fund for the Advancement of Education. The brochure entitled *An Exciting Profession: New Horizons for Secondary-School Teachers* includes, among other items, an outline of more than one hundred possible studies of staff utilization that might be made. These studies are listed under the following nine major headings: (1) utilization of teaching assistants working under the supervision of, or in cooperation with, professionally certificated, experienced, competent teachers; (2) reorganization of administrative patterns; (3) recognition of student responsibility for learning; (4) analysis of teacher roles and teacher competencies; (5) utilization of material aids to instruction; (6) utilization of physical plant in improving staff functioning; (7) improved staff utilization through basic curriculum revision; (8) utiliza-

tion of creative techniques for interesting increased numbers of able young people in becoming teachers; and (9) analysis of contributions and relationships of various methods of staff utilization in a coordinated program. The last named study, of course, would seem to be the most productive since it suggests an across-the-board approach to the improvement of staff utilization.

Even though similar studies may have been conducted elsewhere, and the resultant data point very clearly to desirable changes, the effects upon local practices are likely to be more pronounced if studies are made in the local setting. Suggestions are given in the brochure for making these studies. Also included in the brochure are more than fifty questions which need to be answered one way or another in local communities all over the country. The suggestion is made that parents, students, and other lay citizens participate with professional persons in finding answers to these questions.

EVALUATION

Anyone engaged in experimentation must be concerned at all stages with evaluating the effects of the changes. Dr. Ralph Tyler emphasizes that those conducting experimental studies should be very conscious of the relation of the new techniques and procedures to desirable conditions for learning. He also points out that, in the first stages of an experiment, an appraisal should indicate as specifically as possible the differences which are expected as a result of the new techniques being tried. Because evaluation can become expensive and time consuming, it is important that priorities be established with respect to which objectives are to be measured.

Professional educators and laymen working together in a local school could be reasonably certain that progress was being made if there were authenticated, affirmative answers to these three questions: (1) Is there evidence that better results are being obtained when the changed procedures are being used? (2) Is it possible and feasible to continue the procedures developed in the experiment? and (3) Does the experiment set excellent conditions for learning?

Certainly, in experimental approaches such as we have described this afternoon, results will have to be analyzed in terms of learning outcomes, costs of instruction, pupil-teacher ratio in individual subjects and in the total school, and the feelings which teachers and students have as a consequence of the changed procedures.

Annual Banquet

Saturday, February 23, 7:00 P.M.

SHERATON HALL, SHERATON-PARK HOTEL

Theme: OUR SECONDARY SCHOOL—CITADELS FOR PEACE AND FREEDOM

Presiding: *George L. Cleland*, Secondary-School Consultant, State Department of Education, Topeka, Kansas; President of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Toastmaster: *Martin M. Mansperger, Sr.*, Professor of Education, West Virginia University, Morgantown, W. Va.; Former principal, Freeport Junior-Senior High School, Freeport, New York.

Invocation: *The Rev. Frederick Brown Harris*, Chaplain, United States Senate, Washington, D. C.

Presentation : Presentation of guests of honor and foreign educators.

In addition to those who participated in the program, the following persons were seated at the head table: Robert W. Eaves, Executive Secretary of the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association; Boise L. Bristor, Statistician for the District of Columbia Public Schools, Secretary-Treasurer of the District of Columbia Association of Secondary-School Principals, and Co-Chairman of the Washington Convention Committee; S. Harry Baker, Jr., Director of Special Education in the District of Columbia Public Schools, and Co-Chairman of the Washington Convention Committee; Mrs. Robert W. Eaves; Mrs. William G. Carr; Finis E. Engleman, Executive Secretary of the American Association of School Administrators; Miss Martha Shull, President of the National Education Association; L. G. Derthick, United States Commissioner of Education; William G. Carr, Executive Secretary of the National Education Association; Mrs. Finis E. Engleman; Mrs. George L. Cleland; and Paul E. Elicker, Executive Secretary of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

The following persons representing foreign countries were invited guests: Sami A. El-Gammal, Technical Member, Secondary Education Department, Ministry of Education, Egypt; Ahmed A. Ibrahim, Director of Finance, Ministry of Education, Cairo, Egypt; Sami Nashid, Subhead, Curriculum Planning Division, Ministry of Education, Cairo, Egypt; Alain Plenel, Vice Recteur of Education, Martinique, French West Indies; Jorge A. Villatoro, Principal, High School, Huehuetenango, Guatemala; Prabhu Dyal Bhatia, Principal, Salwan Higher Secondary School, Delhi, India; Mrs. Chandra K. Dandiya, Headmistress, Maharani Girls High

School, Jaipur, India; Niranjan S. Hoonjan, Senior Master, Government High School, Garhahankar, India; Miss Valerie Luini, Director, Commercial Technical School of Carlo Monata, Rome, Italy; Miss Francesca Marangelli, Principal, Bari Classical Junior High School, Bari, Italy; Kah-Yuen Chu, Senior Assistant Inspector of Chinese Schools, Negri Sembilan, Malaya; Mrs. Hannah Chung Mei, Supervisor, Chinese Schools, Department of Education, Malaya; Eivind Jorgensen, Superintendent of Schools, Oslo, Norway; Hans Ostvold, Principal, Seknes, Lofoten, Norway; Mrs. Mary Hosein, Principal, BYJ Girls Secondary Schools, Karachi, Pakistan; Mrs. Ruqayya Qizilbash, Headmistress, Qumrunnessa Government Girls High School, Pakistan; and Walter H. Schettini, Principal, Liceo No. 6, Montevideo, Uruguay.

Music: Washington-Lee Senior High School Choir, Arlington, Virginia; Florence Mae Booker, Director; Jerry J. Gerich, Principal.

O Bone Jesu.....*Palestrina*
 Come Again! Sweet Love Doth Now Invite.....*John Dowland*
 Exaltation from Celestial Spring.....*F. Melius Christiansen*
 Rockin' Jerusalem.....*Negro Spiritual—Work*
 Babylon Is Fallen.....*Negro Spiritual—Cain*

Addresses:

AMERICA'S ASSETS IN THE PRESENT CRISIS

NORMAN COUSINS

THE United States has begun to regain some of its lost prestige and respect among the peoples of Asia and Africa. We are still a long way from occupying the favored position we held fifteen years ago, when we were identified with the cause of justice in behalf of peoples who had been deprived of it for centuries. But at last the downward drift has stopped. And it seems clear that there is now a new level of attention for what we say and want to do.

Two massive world developments have contributed to the improved standing of the United States among the Asian and African peoples. The first, of course, is the horror and sense of shock produced by the brutal suppression of the Soviet of the Hungarian rebellion. Since the USSR and the United States have been juxtaposed against each other in the battle for world public opinion, when one goes down the other usually goes up. The gradual decline of our influence after the end of World War II was marked by a corresponding climb in the standing of the Soviet. But the sudden turn of events in Hungary has thrown not only

Norman Cousins of New York City is Editor of the *Saturday Review*, a world traveler, and a famous internationalist.

Soviet Russia but also world Communism into an abrupt retreat. This could be of the profoundest historical importance. For the Soviet up until now has claimed it was being victimized by the ugly propaganda of those who were trying to destroy it. It could come before the peoples of Asia and Africa who were clamoring for freedom from outside rule and pose as their champion. It could talk about a better world in which there would be neither hunger nor oppression nor colonial domination. And very little that we could say about the nature of Communism and its totalitarian character could offset the image of a powerful Soviet standing for social justice and national independence for the Asian and African peoples. All this has now changed.

With no group did the name of the Soviet exercise greater magic than the young students. Some of my most vivid memories of visits to Japan, Indonesia, Malaya, India, Pakistan, and Ceylon during the past eight years are of question periods at universities when determined young people would try to get me to back down on some of the statements I made about the dynamics of the totalitarian state, whether Communist or Fascist. For the young people wanted nothing so much as a design for a better world and they sincerely believed, many of them, that this design carried the Soviet seal and that no force in the world could keep it from coming into being. But now, with Hungary, an angry reversal of conviction has come. Students in Asia and Africa are demonstrating outside Russian embassies and consulates. The same sense of justice that attracted them to Communism in the first place is now supplying the heat and energy for their protests against the destruction of the freedom movement in Hungary. And as eyes and hopes turn away from the Soviet, there is a natural tendency to look for a new champion. And all at once America and Americans are being re-appraised in a new light.

This leads to the second important development that has contributed to the upturn of our position in the East. While there was not too much enthusiasm for our vacillating foreign policies, and while people were often astounded at the lack of American knowledge and sensitivity on issues of deep historical concern to those directly involved, it is now felt that when the Middle East crisis broke America showed mature judgment and restraint. In particular, it is felt that the speech of President Eisenhower on October 31 may represent a vital turning point away from what could have been the eruptive beginning of a world war. In that speech the American President defined basic principles in the relations of nations to each other in a way that caused many parts of the complex Middle Eastern crisis to fall into place. In just seven words he stated the basic challenge of our age: "There can be no peace without law." He did not condone the provocative and inflammatory actions of the Egyptian Government that led to the sudden moves by the Israeli, British, and French Governments, but he also made it clear that the only hope for the world was to create a situation in which justice could be achieved without force.

No one knows whether the many fuses of a hydrogen bomb war that are now spluttering can all be stamped out. But if by some miracle this can be done, there will open out a stage for effective action such as the world has not known since 1945. The principles of a UN Police Force have been accepted. This force must be broadened and permanently established. But all its implications must be fully understood. A police force must have behind it all the agencies of law enactment and interpretation if it is to be responsibly operated. It must have the confidence of the peoples. Therefore, an attempt must be made to implant in the UN responsible and effective agencies of world justice which can command the respect and confidence of the world's peoples. There can be no peace without law, but there will be no respect for law unless law exists for the purpose of assuring justice. Where there is no justice the people will take the law into their own hands.

The new level of attention enjoyed by the United States may well serve as the basis for advocating the big and bold measures that can make world law a reality. World law cannot come into being without inspired advocacy. It must be the kind of advocacy that seeks more than a way out of the present convulsions. It must seek an end to the age of world anarchy and the beginning of justice among nations and men.

THE BEST IS YET TO BE

FRED SMITH

THIS address held the undivided attention of the more than 1700 principals who were in attendance at the Annual Banquet. This business executive and specialist in personnel management with his humor set forth certain characteristics that make for a good administrator. He stated "A good executive is a man who can get his men to do the job better than he can." Working below par and procrastinating by permitting the large jobs to stand while the smaller ones are done, according to the speaker, are two problems common to the executive. In stressing qualities needed by executives, Mr. Smith emphasized the ability to get good work from associates by picking good people and leaving them alone. The executive should not be concerned with the importance of his position and the rights which accompany it, but with the responsibilities which have been placed on him. Maintenance of self-control, freedom from irritability, and obliteration of negative criticism mark the outstanding executive. "Emotional stability," advises Mr. Smith, "is a mark of maturity."

Suggesting further qualities for the executive, Mr. Smith stated that the ability to speak the language of those with whom he deals, instead of trying to impress them, makes the good business man. "Take your job

Fred Smith of Cincinnati, Ohio, was formerly personnel director of a number of large industrial organizations.

seriously but not yourself," the lecturer from Cincinnati quipped, in classifying a sense of humor as an important qualification for the executive. The good executive should practice the law of reciprocal action, following the Golden Rule with only one addition, "Do unto others as you would have them do unto you," but "Do it first!"

Reception

Sunday, February 24, 4:00 - 6:00 P.M.

TERRACE ROOM, SHOREHAM HOTEL

Hosts:

National Association of Secondary-School Principals
District of Columbia Association of Secondary-School Principals
Maryland Secondary-School Principals' Association
Virginia Association of Secondary-School Principals

Chairman: Ruth H. McRae, Supervising Director, Department of Home Economics, District of Columbia Public Schools, Washington, D. C.

THE four cooperating Associations gave a Reception in the Terrace Room of the Shoreham Hotel for those attending the Convention. Refreshments, including coffee, tea, and milk, were served to more than 2,000 persons. Miss Ruth H. McRae, who was Chairman of the Reception Committee and did an outstanding job in the preparation, was unable to be present at the Reception due to an accident with which she met. Miss Emilie M. White capably acted as Chairman during the Reception.

Vesper Service

Sunday, February 24, 8:00 P.M.

SHERATON HALL, SHERATON-PARK HOTEL

Presiding: R. B. Norman, Principal, Senior High School, Amarillo, Texas;
1st Vice President of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Invocation: The Rev. J. Warren Hastings, Minister, National City Christian Church, Washington, D. C.

Music by the Paul Junior High School Chorus, Washington, D. C.;
Reba A. Will, Director; Thomas F. Ferry, Principal.

Scripture Reading and Prayer by The Rev. William Stuart Nelson, Dean, Howard University, Washington, D. C.

Address:

THE REV. EDWARD L. R. ELSON

THE Reverend Edward L. R. Elson, Pastor of the National Presbyterian Church, Washington, D. C., and also President of the Washington Federation of Churches, gave an interesting address before a packed house. He traced the growth of the major religious sects in this country and showed their present-day influence. "With the revival of religion in human culture today, we must have a confidence in God to make us something we have never been. We must let the movement of the spirit come to full domination," claimed Reverend Elson.

Educators are, according to the President of the Washington Federation of Churches, "exploring how to develop religious men. Their standards are religious standards; their ideals, religious ideals; their motivations, religious motivations." Comparing the pioneer with the modern man, the Pastor to many Washington notables, including President Eisenhower, explained that the ax, once used to fell trees, has been replaced by industry; the gun, once used for protection, by the armament program. However, the Book, used then as a handbook of daily activities, is still with us, once more shedding the light of a new spiritual awakening.

Speaking about the President, the decorated Second World War hero stated that the really informed everywhere feel that the President "speaks from a moral eminence in the critical international situation."

Separation of Church and State does not mean the divorcement of education from religious values. Although the separation of the institutions of religion from the institutions of government is an American principle to be honored with undeviating fidelity, there is no true doctrine of American life which eliminates the influence of religion from national affairs, civic conduct, or the education of our youth. An education without religion would be only a fractional education because it would omit one of the great areas of human experience.

The man teaching physics or the woman teaching home economics is a religious teacher and cannot conceal the fact, however objective in teaching content, because the teacher cannot be separated from himself.

We may not yet have found the formula for teaching religion in public education, but we know one factor without which it cannot be done. It cannot be done without religiously motivated men and women in education. My own life gives testimony to this fact, for it was not a clergyman but my football coach in a Western Pennsylvania High School who most influenced my religious life in the formative years. Moreover, because education is not sectarian it does not follow that education is neutral in morals or hostile to religion. Education is still the communication of truth through persons, and persons are always capable of conveying the religious spirit.

Washington shares with the rest of the nation in our contemporary religious renaissance. Washington is a good city. It is just as good as the people you send to it. The nation's capital has always been a religious city of strong churches and influential pulpits, in which also are the headquarters for many national religious organizations. For the last four years one new Protestant church has been built each month; hosts of Roman Catholic churches have been erected; half a dozen million-dollar Jewish Temples with several of lesser value have been erected. The difference today is that religion is out in the open—obvious and uninhibited. The renewal of the religious spirit crosses all political parties and penetrates every religious community. It is symbolized by the President and his associates; it is demonstrated by members of the legislative and judicial branches of government.

How fortunate that in such a critical international situation as is ours this week-end we have a President of such majestic character, such an inclusive world view and perspective of history as to stand firmly on high principles in support of the United Nations. There is a feeling among the really informed everywhere that after his bold actions of last fall and his clear statement last week he speaks from a moral eminence and with an instinctively spiritual authenticity which commends itself instinctively to men of goodwill everywhere.

Music by the Montgomery Blair High School Chorus, Silver Spring, Maryland; Mary Cross, Director; Daryl W. Shaw, Principal.

Benediction by The Rev. J. Warren Hastings, Minister of the National City Christian Church, Washington, D. C.

Third General Session

Monday, February 25, 9:30 A.M.

SHERATON HALL, SHERATON-PARK HOTEL

Presiding: R. B. Norman, Principal, Senior High School, Amarillo, Texas; 1st Vice President of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Platform Guests: Past Presidents of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals; and Presidents of State Secondary-School Principals' Associations.

Invocation by Rabbi Norman Gerstenfeld, Washington Hebrew Congregation, Washington, D. C.

Music by the Youth Orchestra, Montgomery County Public Schools, Rockville, Maryland; Chester J. Petranik, Conductor; Forbes H. Norris, Superintendent.

Address:

A POSTURE FOR PEACE IN A CHANGING WORLD

HAROLD E. STASSEN

IN RESPONDING to your invitation to speak to you at this 41st Annual Convention may I express certain convictions in relation to your work and provide some information in relation to my work. The long term future of America will be influenced to a greater extent in the secondary schools of our country than in any other educational area. The teenage years are the most important in affecting the future capacity, attitude, responsibility, initiative, and ethics of men and women. The high schools and preparatory schools of our nation have now reached the point where they include in their enrollments an over-whelming percentage of the total teenage population. There is a need of a greater general recognition of these basic facts.

May I then state my confidence in the American teenagers of today. This confidence is not shaken by "rock-and-roll" outbreaks. It is not destroyed by the percentage of juvenile delinquency. It is founded on a perspective of increased proportions attending Sunday Schools and other forms of religious education, joining Boy Scouts and other constructive organizations, playing in orchestras, reading good books, engaging in competitive athletics, and participating in a wide range of wholesome cultural activities.

But there is an urgent need for adults to contribute to youth in three main areas: *Hopefulness* that a lasting peace can be maintained in the decades ahead and the devastation of a modern war can be avoided; *Determination* that America will survive as a land of the free, whatsoever may be the challenges, trials, or damage to which it may be subjected in the future; and *Faith* in the fundamental concepts of the rights and dignity and spiritual value of an individual man and woman under God.

Is there grounds for hopefulness about the durability of world peace? The answer is yes. Of course there are grave dangers. No one should under-estimate the many difficulties and sharp disputes in various parts of the earth. But there is a deep awareness in all nations that modern war would inevitably result in a vast net loss to all sides. There is a broad recognition of the value of the United Nations, with all of its limitations and imperfections, as a center for solutions of conflicts of interest without the use of armed force. The patient and persistent efforts of President Eisenhower and Secretary Dulles, with a considerable measure of support from both political parties in the Congress, have contributed toward the solution of many serious international problems without war in the past four years. The outlook is favorable for future settlements without war.

Harold E. Stassen of Washington, D. C., is Special Assistant to the President.

In this unending search for a more stable foundation for a continuing peace, the United States will soon engage in a renewed effort to reach agreement for the safeguarded reduction of armed forces and armaments. This effort will take place in a meeting of the United Nations Subcommittee assigned to this task. The meeting is expected to convene in London on March 18. Russia, France, Canada, Great Britain, and the United States will be represented.

At this Subcommittee session the United States will present in detail President Eisenhower's proposals as outlined in this manner by Ambassador Lodge in the United Nations General Assembly. These proposals are the direct follow-through and outgrowth of the initiative taken by President Eisenhower at the Geneva Summit Conference. They are as follows:

First: The United States proposes that an agreement be reached under which, at an early date under effective international inspection, all future production of fissionable materials shall be used or stockpiled exclusively for non-weapons purposes under international supervision. Scientists throughout the world know that it is impossible to account with essential certainty, or to discover through any known scientific means of inspection, all of the fissionable materials produced in the past, or all of the existing accumulation of nuclear weapons. It is not possible to turn backward the clock of nuclear discovery and development, nor to repeal the Nuclear Age. One thing which can be done and which, for the sake of humanity, the United States proposes should be done, is to establish effective international control of future production of fissionable materials and to exchange firm commitments to use all future production exclusively for non-weapons purposes.

When such commitments are executed, it would then be possible to move reliably toward the reduction of existing stockpiles. When future production is controlled it should be easier than with information now available to establish, within a reasonable range of accuracy, the approximate amount of fissionable materials previously produced, so that equitable and proportionate transfers in successive increments could be made from past production over to the internationally supervised national or international non-weapons use of such material.

This proposal is the logical projection and follow-through of the concept emphasized by President Eisenhower in his message to the United Nations on December 8, 1953, when he proposed the "Atoms-for-Peace" program. It is inspired by the same motives which led to the establishment of the International Atomic Energy Agency through the cooperation of nations of the world. Under this program the United States, for its part, would make generous, progressive transfers of fissionable material to peaceful uses, just as it has previously announced its intention to contribute to the International Atomic Energy Agency. It will continue to encourage nations to make their full contributions to the constructive uses of atomic energy. Under such a program, the whole future trend

may be changed. The course of atomic development will move in a benign direction rather than toward some evil end.

Second: If such an arrangement to control the future production of fissionable material can be negotiated and put into effect, it would then be possible, in a secure manner, to limit and ultimately to eliminate, all nuclear test explosions. The United States proposes that this be done. Pending the negotiation of such an agreement, the United States is also willing to work out, promptly, methods for advance notice and registration of all nuclear tests and to provide for limited international observation for such tests. This could be an effective forerunner of far-reaching agreement, affecting both the nuclear threat itself and testing, in particular.

Third: The United States proposes that we move ahead toward the realization of a first-stage reduction, under adequate inspection of conventional armaments and armed forces, using as a basis of measurement the figures of 2.5 million for the USSR and the US, and 750,000 for France and the UK, upon which the countries represented on the Subcommittee seem to agree. The United States proposes that we achieve this forward step through the progressive establishment of an effective inspection system concurrent with such reductions. An effective inspection system would require an appropriate aerial inspection component as well as ground units. The United States accepts the principal of establishing observers at key ground locations, as generally proposed by Chairman Bulganin, in addition to air inspection. The proposed first stage of reductions can be fulfilled provided there is good faith on all sides in establishing a system of inspection that can in fact verify the commitments.

The United States does not believe that deeper reductions than these agreed for the first stage can be made unless some progress is made in settlement of the major political issues now dividing the world. But the fulfillment of a first-stage reduction would certainly improve the climate for the negotiation of such political settlements.

Fourth: Scientists in many nations are now proceeding with efforts to propel objects through outer space and to travel in the distant areas beyond the earth's atmospheric envelope. The scope of these programs is variously indicated in the terms: "earth satellites," "intercontinental missiles," "long-range unmanned weapons," and "space platforms." No one can now predict with certainty what will develop from man's excursion in this new field. But it is clear that, if this advance into the unknown is to be a blessing rather than a curse, the efforts of all nations in this field need to be brought within the purview of a reliable armaments control system. The United States proposes that the first step toward the objective of assuring that future developments in outer space would be devoted exclusively to peaceful and scientific purposes would be to bring the testing of such objects under international inspection and participation. In

this matter, as in other matters, we are ready to participate in fair, balanced, reliable systems of control.

Fifth: The United States continues to emphasize the importance of providing against the possibility of great surprise attack. This is not a minor or peripheral proposal. The nature of modern weapons is such that, if all nations are safeguarded against great surprise attack, there is much less likelihood that a calculated major war would be initiated in the nuclear age. Likewise, such mutual assurances against great surprise attack would do much to prevent miscalculation by any nation regarding the intention of another. The greater the speed of potential attack and the more devastating the blows that could be struck, the greater is the danger that anxious apprehension, feeding on ignorance of the dispositions and intentions of others, would adversely and dangerously affect the decisions of nations.

It is in the interest of each nation, not only that it have sure knowledge that other nations are not preparing a great surprise attack upon it, but, also, that these other nations should have sure knowledge that it is not planning a great surprise attack upon them. Today many nations have knowledge of the location of key centers, of the areas of strategic importance, and of the concentration of military power of other nations. This information would be adequate for the waging of a devastating war. But unless a reliable inspection system is established with open skies, open ports, open centers, each nation will possess something less than the regular, dependable information necessary to form a stable basis for a durable peace. The United States proposes, therefore, the progressive installation of inspection systems which will provide against the possibility of great surprise attack. The United States is willing to execute, either as an opening step or a later step, the complete proposal made in the Summit Conference at Geneva by President Eisenhower.

It has been said by some that the proposals do not really represent disarmament. Taking the word "disarmament" in its literal sense, the comment is understandable. But we find nothing in the lessons of history to recommend weakness, nor the complete divesting of all armaments, as any basis for durable peace. The word "disarmament" has come to mean within the United Nations any measures toward the limitation, reduction, inspection, regulation, or control of armaments or armed forces. In this sense our United States policy is of course a disarmament policy. Perhaps it would be better if we found words to express it which were more in keeping with the ordinary usage of such words. I have referred to it before as a policy of safeguarded semi-disarmament. But that contains so many syllables that it is hardly usable as a headline handle. Perhaps it could be described as a policy of *fair armament*. "Fair" is defined by Webster as equitable, just, honest, upright, open, clear, and not obscure.

A very thorough study, with the assistance of eight special task groups of men of outstanding experience in scientific, governmental, and military fields, causes us to be convinced that, if the armaments of the world can

become open rather than concealed, if they become the subject of certain knowledge rather than uncertain intelligence, if they are balanced and poised rather than competitively up-built, if we have an armaments posture rather than an arms race, there is a better chance of maintaining peace and there will be a larger portion of the resources of the world devoted toward opportunity for all peoples.

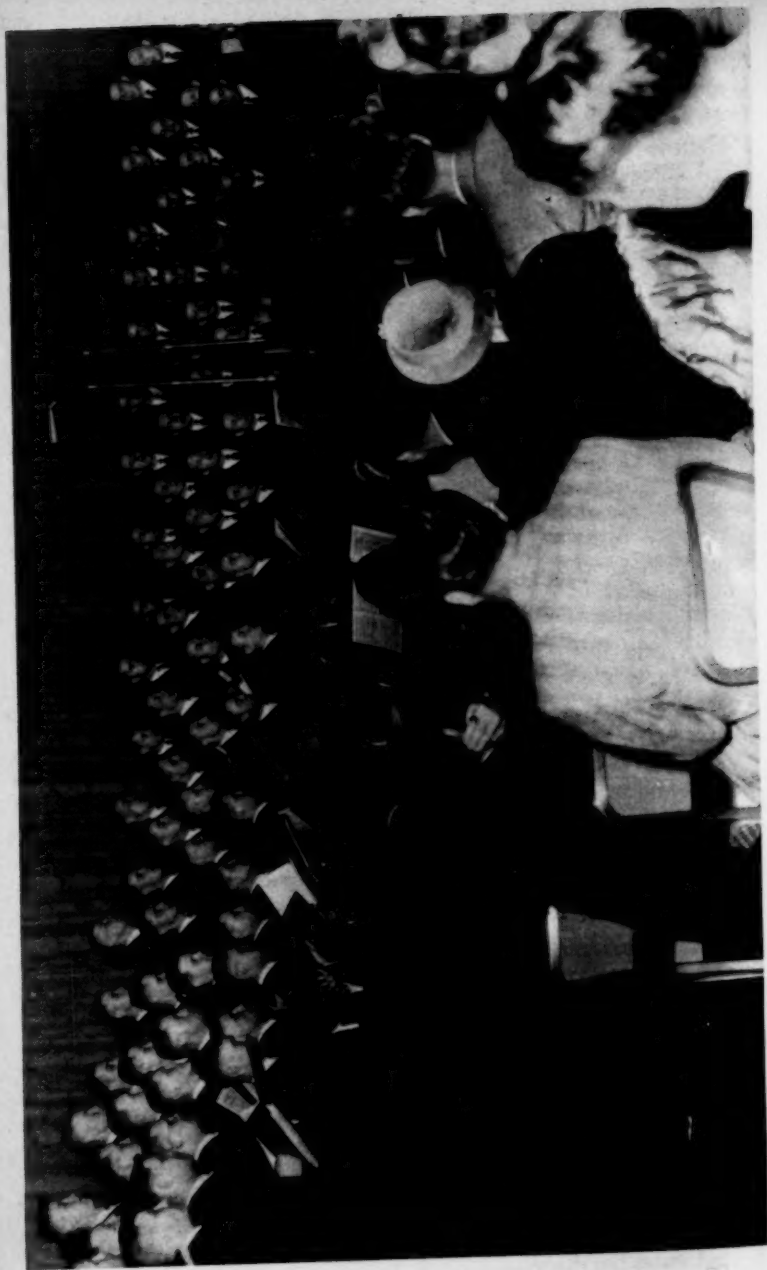
These policies that have thus been outlined by Ambassador Henry Cabot Lodge, at the opening of the consideration of this subject at the United Nations General Assembly, were based on decisions of President Eisenhower and on a specific message approved by the seven departments and agencies of our government directly concerned: Department of State, Department of Defense, Atomic Energy Commission, Central Intelligence Agency, Operations Coordinating Board, United States Information Agency, and, from a legal standpoint, the Department of Justice.

In addition, the United States will be prepared to discuss the proposals of other governments. With care and thoroughness, we will be seeking to find a sound first step which can reverse the trend and, under effective inspection, advance the mutual interest of all nations. We do not make predictions. But you can be certain that we will persevere in the quest for a better basis for a prolonged peace.

Panel Discussion: THE WORLD WE WANT

MRS. THEODORE WALLER, Chairman

ONE OF the most interesting features of the program was the appearance of some thirty-three foreign students—some in native dress—who were brought to this country by the *New York Herald Tribune* and who have spent several months in various American high schools. In two panel discussions they said that they were impressed by our friendliness, frankness, and abundance of excellent teaching materials. At the same time, they felt that our students do not work hard enough, are not challenged enough, and that they are not truly appreciative of the many benefits which they enjoy. Their arguments were ably rebutted by two American high-school students, Eileen Kossow of Woodrow Wilson High School in Washington, D. C., and Suzanne Wilson of Washington-Lee High School in Arlington, Virginia. These two girls spent several weeks in Europe last summer as members of the Tour for International Understanding, sponsored by the National Association of Student Councils. They argued that it is not possible to judge a school system in just a few weeks and that much of what the foreign students criticized evidently was not understood. They stated that simply because one school system is different from another does not imply that it is either inferior or superior to another. One somewhat unwitting defense of the American school system was offered by a boy from Lebanon who said that there must be something good in our schools when we consider the tremendous progress which the United States has made.



The United States Naval Academy Choir. (Photo courtesy John L. Hefner, Jr., Chief Gunner's Mate)

Fourth General Session

Monday, February 25, 8:00 P.M.

SHERATON HALL, SHERATON-PARK HOTEL

Presiding: James D. Logsdon, Principal, Shorewood High School, Shorewood, Wisconsin; Member of the Executive Committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Platform Guests: Secretaries of State Secondary-School Principals' Associations.

Introduction by Roy S. Benson, Rear Admiral, USN, Department of the Navy, Washington, D. C.

Music by the United States Navy Band, Commander Charles Brendler, Conductor; and the *United States Naval Academy Choir*, Donald C. Gilley, Director.

Fifth General Session

Tuesday, February 26, 9:30 A.M.

SHERATON HALL, SHERATON-PARK HOTEL

Presiding: George E. Shattuck, Principal, Norwich Free Academy, Norwich, Connecticut; 2nd Vice-President of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Platform Guests: Co-ordinators of State Secondary-School Principals' Associations.

Invocation by Patrick J. Ryan, Major General, Army Chief of Chaplains, Washington, D. C.

Music by Senior High School A Cappella Chorus of Suitland, Maryland; Mrs. Dorothy Seabee Pelling, Director; *Thomas V. Warthen*, Principal

Address:

WHERE ARE WE ON INTEGRATION?

VIRGINIUS DABNEY

I AM glad you asked me to speak to you this morning on "Where We Are on Integration" rather than "Where We Are Going on Integration." I would much prefer to try to tell you what the present posture of interracial relations is than to try to predict what the next few years will bring forth. As a newspaper editor, I have to dust off my crystal ball from time to time and to gaze knowingly into my tea leaves, but the job of forecast-

Virginius Dabney is editor of the *Richmond Times-Dispatch* of Richmond, Virginia.

ing the immediate inter-racial future in certain areas of the South is, I confess, beyond my powers.

As public school principals you are inevitably concerned over the effect of the inter-racial controversy upon the public school systems of the various states. In some of those states the effect has not been particularly pronounced one way or the other, whereas in others it has been profound—even potentially catastrophic.

This latter aspect of the problem is one which also concerns me greatly. As a citizen, as a former teacher in a private preparatory school, and a parent with a son in a public high school, I am deeply troubled by the thought that the growing intensity of the struggle over integration in some eight or nine southern states may disrupt, and even close down entirely, the systems of public education in several of those states. A more chaotic condition would be difficult to imagine. Aside from the educational problems involved, consider the enormous rise in juvenile delinquency which would inevitably accompany such a development.

Already we are encountering acute problems in the educational field in a number of southern states, and the end is not yet. Appropriation of school funds from month to month, uncertainty of the future for school teachers, reluctance of citizens to accept appointments to school boards are some of the disturbing phenomena which confront us.

In the border states where integration has been proceeding smoothly for the most part, there have been problems growing out of the two to three-year educational lag often noticed in the performance of Negro students by comparison with white students of the same age. Granted that much of this is due to inferior school facilities heretofore available to colored pupils in those areas and to inferior living conditions—the problem is a huge and baffling one, nevertheless. The question of how to avoid handicapping white children by throwing them into classes with Negro children who are incapable of doing the work must be giving many of you genuine concern. The parallel question of how to bring the colored students up to the required level of achievement doubtless concerns you no less.

Here in this great city of Washington, where seventy percent of the school population is colored, these problems are particularly acute. Although integration is now in its third year here, solutions are a long way off, according to the best information I can get. It seems clear to me that mixed schools were put into effect here with too much haste and too little preparation.

The situation described by the principal of the John Pitman Elementary School in Kirkwood, Missouri, (one of the first schools in that state to desegregate) is a disturbing one. At the end of two years of integration, Mrs. B. A. Compton, the principal, said to a representative of *Southern School News* that the teachers there felt that "the scholastic disparity remains just as great and that it is now complicated by feelings of frustration and defensiveness on the part of the Negroes—feelings which come

out in the form of greater aggressiveness, arrogance, and bad temper." It was added, however, that none of this constitutes an argument against integration, and that progress in the immediate future was hoped for.

Over against such a report as this must be put that made recently for the city of Baltimore, for example, by the superintendent of schools, John H. Fischer, who said: "On the basis of our experience it seems clear that, by desegregating our schools, we have substantially improved the educational opportunities of Negro children without reducing in any way those available to white children." . . .

In my home state of Virginia, the U. S. Circuit Court of Appeals ruled, on motion of the NAACP, that an excellent regional high school for Negroes in Christiansburg was operating illegally because some of the colored children had to travel longer distances to that school than some of the white children in the area had to travel to their schools. . . .

I find it easy to understand when Omer Carmichael, superintendent of the smoothly integrated Louisville schools, declares, as he did last week, that the NAACP is chiefly responsible for the southern chaos over desegregation. Not content with achieving reasonable gains, this organization continues to press for drastic changes that cannot possibly be granted, and would not work in the South if they were.

The attitude manifested in Arkansas last year illustrates the point. The plan worked out there for progressive integration in the Little Rock schools, beginning on the high school level in 1957, was rejected by the NAACP as unsatisfactory. Its leaders were unwilling to admit that this plan represented a long advance toward their goal. Obviously they insist on having the moon handed them on a silver platter, and are unwilling to proceed by gradual steps. Such an unstatesmanlike attitude is hard to reconcile with the genuine advances the NAACP has achieved for the colored people of this country.

In Virginia, I regret to say, the state legislature has been unfair to the NAACP. It has passed bills designed to harass that organization by obtaining and publicizing the names of all its members, and their financial contributions. This is a dangerous action, and one which the Virginia assemblymen may well live to regret. The legislative harassment of an organization which happens to be unpopular could easily prove a boomerang for the responsible parties. True, the statutes in question apply equally to such organizations as the White Citizens Councils, which are fighting integration. I am awaiting tangible evidence that these organizations will be harassed in the same manner as the NAACP.

There is no doubt of the unpopularity in the South of both the NAACP and the Supreme Court's 1954 decision ordering an end to segregation in the schools. The latest Gallup Poll, which reported that it reflected the views of both white and colored citizens in the southern states, found two thirds of those canvassed to disapprove the court's ruling. By contrast, the poll found nearly two thirds of those in the rest of the country applauding the same ruling.

All of which raises a question as to the implications of such a situation for the South. How long can the South afford to remain in flat and violent disagreement with the North and West on so fundamental an issue as race relations?

Yet there are no indications whatever at this time of a shift of opinion in nine of the eleven states which constituted the Confederacy. In Texas and Arkansas the so-called "black belt" areas appear to be as adamant as ever against integration, although some mixing has gone forward in other regions, especially in Texas. But in Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana the resistance to integration is tremendous. Except for the much-disputed entry of about a dozen Negroes into the Clinton, Tennessee, high school, there has been absolutely no integration in the public schools of these nine states.

If I had to single out one anti-integrationist argument that seems to influence the greatest number of southern whites against mixed schools, it would be the argument that mixed schools lead to "mongrelization." Other sections of the United States sneer and jeer at this argument. Herbert Ravenel Sass of Charleston, South Carolina, presented the ultra-conservative southern position on this about as well as it can be presented, in the November 1956 issue of the *Atlantic*. Promptly the magazine was flooded with derisive letters from the North and West hooting at Mr. Sass and his thesis.

Now it may be possible to argue that integration would not increase the likelihood of racial amalgamation—although any visitor to most of the countries of Central and South America with his eyes open would be likely to reach the opposite conclusion. But even if we accept this argument, which I do not, the desirability that every race strive to maintain its own integrity seems to me to be indisputable. There is nothing in my thesis of bigotry or prejudice, and nothing having to do with supposed racial superiority or inferiority. My point is that the Negro should wish, no less than the white, to retain his racial identity and his cultural heritage, to the end that his race's indisputably great achievements can be properly recognized and handed down to his posterity.

Perhaps the most alarming phenomenon in the South at this time is to be found in the repeated acts of violence against Negroes which are not only criminal and utterly wrong, but which are bringing the entire region into disrepute in the eyes of civilized people everywhere. The bombings, beatings, and shootings which are occurring in some areas, with whites as the guilty parties, are in glaring contrast to the passive and law-abiding attitude of Negro leaders—in the Montgomery bus boycott, for example.

On the other hand, the criminality and immorality of many Negroes is one of the chief reasons why white Southerners object so strongly to mixed schools. Granted that other races might have similar records if they had been enslaved for centuries and then had had to live in slums and to fight against all manner of handicaps. Yet the fact remains that

the Negro crime and illegitimacy rates are everywhere so vastly greater than those of the whites that these statistics have an alarming impact on the minds of parents, especially those of adolescent white boys and girls who would be thrown into rather intimate contact with colored boys and girls in integrated schools.

If I may be pardoned a personal reference, I should like to say that for the past quarter of a century I have striven to eliminate some of the major handicaps from which Negroes have suffered in the South. I was a member of the Atlanta conference which met in the early 1940's, in response to an appeal from Negro leaders who had met shortly before at Durham, North Carolina, and had asked that southern Negroes be treated more fairly and equitably. I was a director of the Southern Regional Council which was then organized in an effort to achieve these objectives.

I was the first southern newspaper editor to urge abolition of segregation on street cars and buses. I proposed this late in 1943, but was unable to persuade the legislature of Virginia to accept my suggestion.

Our inability to get this and other reasonable concessions for the Negro from the white leaders of the South caused the Negro leaders of the region to turn to their racial compatriots in the North. The South's Negro leadership would have been satisfied, I believe, at least for a time, with much less than the all-out objectives subsequently sought by the NAACP. But the white leaders of the region were unable to deliver, and the result was that the effort of the Negro leadership of the South to "keep the capital of the Negro race in Atlanta," as one of them put it, failed. It was then that the NAACP's drive for the abolition of segregation got under way, with the support of southern Negro leaders and the "capital" moved to New York.

The tragic fact today in the South is that hardly any liaison remains between the white leadership and the Negro leadership. Not only so, but until a few years ago, Negroes were being elected regularly to city councils and school boards in several Southern states, and it was the most natural thing in the world for white and colored leaders to sit down together for discussion of their mutual problems. These things are no longer true. The two races have been driven apart by the rancorous arguments over segregation, with the result that hardly any avenues of communication exist in most areas. The NAACP leadership has committed all Negroes so completely to its drive for total integration that any white who dissents from this view is stigmatized as an enemy of the Negro race. Of course, Negro dissenters are assailed with still greater violence, and are pilloried in much of the Negro press as "Uncle Toms," "handkerchief heads," and so on.

I hold no brief for the extremist journals in the South published by whites. Some of them are no better than organs of the resurgent Ku Klux Klan. But it is dismaying to find a once well-balanced Negro paper such as the *Norfolk Journal and Guide* saying, apropos of anti-integrationist

legislation adopted in Virginia: "We have a determination on the part of a majority of Virginians to continue slavery in spirit and practice."

And the temper of the more extreme Negro press is seen in a recent editorial which appeared soon after the birthday of Robert E. Lee in the *Afro-American* chain, largest Negro chain in the nation. It dealt with the proposal in Congress by a northern member to have Lee's citizenship restored. The *Afro-American* said, in part: "If Lee was stripped of his citizenship it was because the country just after the war felt that should be the penalty for a traitor who violated his oath and carried on a war to destroy the union and preserve slavery. . . . He was engaged as a rebel and traitor in a foul and dirty business. The dear God passes judgment on him now." In view of the universal verdict of leading historians in this country and Great Britain as to the nobility of Lee's character and the purity of his motives, further comment on this outburst seems unnecessary. It does serve to illustrate the bitterness which infuses a large segment of the Negro press.

The Negro school teachers of the South should be deeply concerned over this whole controversy. There are from 75,000 to 80,000 of them, and the great danger is that many of them will lose their positions, if matters are pushed to the ultimate conclusion, and mixed schools are forced in certain areas. The unwillingness of many white Southerners to have their children taught by colored teachers is the crux of this situation. Some will consider this attitude narrow-minded, but it exists in such definite form that it cannot be ignored. Several hundred Negro teachers have lost their jobs already in the border states, chiefly Oklahoma, but I understand that most of them have been re-employed elsewhere.

The criticism heaped upon us by our northern friends because many white Southerners, by and large, do not wish their children taught by Negro teachers, would come with better grace, I submit, if the public schools of the North employed more Negro teachers. The number, as is well known to each of you, is infinitesimal by comparison with the number in the South. Even where the colored population is enormous, as in New York, Philadelphia, Detroit, and Chicago, there are few Negro teachers. No satisfactory explanation for this has ever come to my attention.

Permit me to remark parenthetically that the average salary of the tens of thousands of Negro teachers in the South is about equal to that of the white teachers, and in at least three southern states (Virginia, North Carolina, and Tennessee), the average annual salary of Negro teachers is higher than that of white teachers. It must be confessed that the NAACP is largely responsible for bringing Negro teachers' salaries up to the white level. There is no telling how long it would have taken to achieve this objective, had it not been for the suits filed and won by that organization.

While we are discussing the attitude of the North, or certain segments of it, to the race problem, it seems appropriate to emphasize that this

problem is not regional but national. Just the other day I read of how a Negro man was beaten to death on the streets of Boston by white hoodlums who had begun yelling epithets at him when they saw him escorting a white woman.

You are of course familiar with the situation in Chicago, where scores if not hundreds of police have had to guard Negro families around the clock for more than three years at the Trumbull Park housing project. The clear implication of this situation is that these Negroes would have been mobbed long ago for moving into that housing development, but for the protection afforded them.

The Mayor of Dearborn, Michigan, makes it a well-publicized practice not to allow a single Negro to settle in that community of 125,000 people. "Negroes can't get in here", His Honor declared last year. "Every time we hear of a Negro moving in we respond quicker than you do to a fire." The Mayor was given an overwhelming vote of confidence recently, so his policies evidently are regarded with favor and approval by the people of Dearborn.

I hope it is unnecessary for me to say that I abhor the sort of thing that is here described as happening in Boston, Chicago, and Dearborn. These things are disgusting and disgraceful. The fact remains that these occurrences—and others which might be mentioned—have all taken place outside the South. Furthermore, the fact that Negroes have had to be protected from mobs twenty-four hours a day for more than three years in the state of Abraham Lincoln is not without its ironic and tragic implications.

Another point which needs to be made, I believe, is the attitude in the North toward the South's so-called "lawlessness" and "flouting of the constitution and the Supreme Court." I do not defend or condone lawlessness, whether in the North or the South, but it is a bit dismaying to observe that some of our northern compatriots seem to regard lawlessness as something which is not only acceptable, but admirable, when it occurs in accordance with what is deemed to be the sentiment of their particular communities.

Only a few weeks ago, for example, Mayor Richardson Dilworth of Philadelphia applauded this attitude. Speaking apropos of a state law forbidding Sunday basketball in the City of Brotherly Love, His Honor said: "Free people refuse to knuckle under to laws which completely ignore their welfare and desires. . . . Just as long as the legislature refuses to permit cities the right to determine what activities their citizens are entitled to engage in on Sunday, it is inevitable that the law will be ignored."

I wonder whether the Philadelphia newspaper, which has been denouncing Southerners who boggle at all-out integration as bigots and flouters of the "law of the land," has been equally caustic in its references to Mayor Dilworth, who loudly proclaims his intention to ignore the law.

Incidentally, Mayor Dilworth is all for "liberalizing" the Democratic party and putting those law-violating Southerners in their place.

And while we are on this general subject, a great many of those in the North who are blasting the South for failure to comply with the mandates of the Supreme Court on integration violated the constitution and the statutes wholesale during the prohibition era. Of course, I realize that no one in *this* audience could conceivably have patronized a bootlegger when the late lamented "noble experiment" was our prop and stay, but there were thousands, aye millions, who did so. In doing so, they flouted a duly enacted amendment to the constitution and duly approved acts of Congress—not opinions handed down by the Supreme Court. Yet some of these very drinkers of white mule and bathtub gin are loudest in clamoring today that the South has no respect for law and order!

Ladies and gentlemen, we are heading into an era of intersectional tension and misunderstanding, and the intolerance that is being manifested on both sides of Mason and Dixon's Line is not reassuring. It behooves us all to evidence a greater measure of sanity and good will and to stop hurling epithets.

The recent actions of a Federal judge in Tennessee in connection with the racial disorders at Clinton have alarmed many students of the constitution both North and South. They feel that the jurist in question showed a lamentable disregard for certain constitutional verities, and ignored the time-honored right of defendants to a jury trial. They feel that the court was too sweeping in its injunctions. The whole episode seemed symbolic of the prevailing tendency in certain quarters to go to the utmost extremes, if integration is thereby promoted—whether by hauling school children many miles away from their neighborhood schools or by stretching the constitution and the statutes in the name of "liberalism", "democracy", "brotherhood," or what have you.

I would not wish to seem to imply that all the examples of extremism are to be found in the North. In South Carolina, for instance, something very close to witch-hunting and book-burning has been approved almost unanimously by the state legislature. That body adopted a resolution last year asking the State Library Board to remove existing books and to screen future books that are "antagonistic and inimical to the traditions and customs of this state."

The "civil rights" program now before Congress is a perfect example of the sort of extremist legislation which frightens and dismays the South—and should frighten and dismay the whole country. Has it been seriously contemplated before in this land that persons "about to engage in" certain acts could be arrested and haled into court? Yet one of the provisions of a pending "civil rights" bill embodies this amazing language. Even Congressman Adam Clayton Powell, of New York, not exactly a "race-baiter" or a "white supremacist," has said that this plan to arrest persons "about to engage in" certain activities seems to him dangerously like "thought control."

The "civil rights" program also appears to negate the right to trial by jury, and it would enable the attorney general to file, *at public expense*, suits on behalf of persons who contend that their civil rights have been violated. Another provision would seem to empower a proposed civil rights commission to summon any citizen from any part of the United States to any other part to defend himself against charges the nature of which was completely unknown to him prior to receipt of the subpoena.

Most, or all, of the foregoing is vouched by former judges who are now members of Congress as being in accord with reasonable interpretations of the language of these "civil rights" bills. Such far-reaching legislation should have much more careful scrutiny than it appears to be getting. A majority of Congress seems to be so bemused by the phrase "civil rights" that it is reluctant to vote against anything which bears that label, no matter how dangerous its potentialities. And these particular measures have about as many potentialities for evil, and for interracial conflict, as have been presented to Congress in a long time.

In conclusion let me say that I end as I began—reluctant, even unwilling to try to forecast the future of the current inter-racial upheaval in the South. We are heading into stormy seas, I fear. The Deep South, it must be said in all frankness, has no present intention of integrating its public schools. Several of those states have a fixed determination to close their schools entirely, rather than mingle the races in them. All courts, as far as I know, agree that this would be legal, however deplorable, from an educational and social standpoint.

Let us hope, therefore, that the NAACP will see the folly of forcing the issue in these states, and will exhibit a statesmanlike restraint. Enormous gains have been made by the Negro race in education and every other sphere throughout the entire South, and additional gains will be made, if only the responsible leadership of the race will assert itself. What the ultimate future holds is not for me to say. I only know that the course of wisdom for the NAACP today is for that militant organization to "back up," to consolidate its gains, and to refrain from pushing matters so fast and so far as to pass the "point of no return." Otherwise it will do irreparable harm to the cause of Negro advancement and inter-racial amity.

Panel Discussion: WHAT CAN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS DO TO ORIENT YOUTH TOWARD CRITICAL CAREER AREAS?

DISCUSSANTS:

Robert H. Carleton, Executive Secretary, National Science Teachers Association, Washington, D. C.

Edgar Fuller, Executive Secretary, Council of Chief State School Officers, Washington, D. C.

Don S. Wheeler, Principal, Eastern High School, Lansing, Michigan

REMEDIES FOR THE PRESENT AND PROBABLE FUTURE SHORTAGE OF HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS

HAROLD C. HAND

FROM 1950 to 1955, the number of college graduates who completed the certification requirements to teach high-school subjects decreased as follows: science, 59%; agriculture, 57%; industrial arts, 56%; boys' physical education, 55%; mathematics, 53%; social studies, 51%; foreign languages, 39%; commerce, 39%; girls' physical education, 22%; home economics, 18%; music, 15%; art, 13%. Of these graduates, fewer than two thirds (63%) actually went into teaching.

In 1956 the first upturn since 1950 was reported in the number of college graduates who had met the certification requirements for high-school teaching. The gains over the 1955 figures ranged from 25 per cent for business education down to seven per cent for music. However, if military service, homemaking, graduate study, and the lure of higher pay in the nonteaching occupations took the same proportionate toll among the 1956 graduates as was true in 1955, here was the situation in the fall of 1956:

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Number of New Teachers</i>	<i>Number of High Schools</i>	<i>Ratio</i>
Physics	131	27,000	1:206
Chemistry	253	27,000	1:106
Agriculture	679	27,000	1:39
Biology	825	27,000	1:33
Foreign Language	900	27,000	1:30
Speech	992	27,000	1:27
General Science	1281	27,000	1:21
Art	1452	27,000	1:19
Industrial Arts	1647	27,000	1:16
Mathematics	1742	27,000	1:15
Girls' Physical Education	2184	27,000	1:12
Home Economics	2970	27,000	1:9
Business Education	3135	27,000	1:9
Boys' Physical Education	3135	27,000	1:9
Music	3450	27,000	1:8
English	4088	27,000	1:7
Social Studies	5265	27,000	1:5

Obviously, the number of newly certificated teachers who went into high-school classrooms in the fall of 1956 was far too few to replace those who left the profession at the end of the preceding year, to say nothing of

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those needed to care for the increased enrollment during the present school year.

The U. S. Office of Education has estimated that the grades nine through twelve enrollment will be 10,114,000 pupils in 1964-65. This will be an increase of 52 per cent over the enrollment figure for 1955-56.

If the upward trend in the number of college graduates who are prepared to teach continues at the same rate as that for 1955 to 1956, how many new teachers will be entering each high-school subject field in the school year 1964-65? By that year, as we have already noted, 52 per cent more pupils will be in high school and it seems likely that by that time the present number of high schools (27,000) will have increased by about 20 per cent to 32,000.

If the 1955 to 1956 rate of increase in the number of new teachers is compounded for each year between now and the fall of 1964, and if it be assumed that military service, Dan Cupid, and the lure of nonteaching occupations will continue to take their present proportionate toll, and if the number of secondary schools increases from 27,000 to 32,000, here is what the story will be in the school year 1964-65:

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Number of New Teachers</i>	<i>Number of High Schools</i>	<i>Ratio</i>
Physics	600	32,000	1:53
Chemistry	628	32,000	1:51
Agriculture	1447	32,000	1:22
Foreign Languages	2228	32,000	1:14
Speech	2463	32,000	1:13
Biology	3318	32,000	1:10
Art	4410	32,000	1:7
Girls' Physical Education	5034	32,000	1:6
General Science	5150	32,000	1:6
Music	5928	32,000	1:5
English	7575	32,000	1:4
Home Economics	7920	32,000	1:4
Mathematics	8146	32,000	1:4
Industrial Arts	8084	32,000	1:4
Boys' Physical Education	11,784	32,000	1:3
Business Education	18,664	32,000	1:2
Social Studies	19,788	32,000	1:2

These projections to the school year 1964-65 make it clear that, if present trends continue, the teacher shortage in all except possibly one or two subjects will be seriously large during at least the next ten years.

There seem to be but three possible kinds of remedies. *One* is to induce a much larger percentage of the college graduates who are prepared to teach actually to enter the teaching profession, which only two thirds do at the present time. A *second* is to make better use of the teachers we do

have. A *third* is vastly to increase the number of young men and women who prepare themselves as teachers. Let us comment briefly on each of these three remedies in turn.

We have already named the four circumstances which result in the loss of about one third of the college graduates who are prepared to teach at the high-school level. One is *military service*; the proportion involved here is likely to remain about what it now is—approximately fifteen per cent of the men. A second is *marriage and homemaking*; this takes about eight per cent of the women, and our guess is that this figure will grow no smaller. A third is *graduate study*; this accounts for eight per cent of the men and four per cent of the women, proportions which probably should not be reduced. The fourth is the *lure of occupations* other than teaching, an appeal to which not quite ten per cent of both sexes yield. *Higher salaries and better working conditions* for teachers would undoubtedly attract a great many of this nine per cent into the classroom, but this would afford but a small measure of immediate relief so far as the teacher shortage is concerned. Had none of the 1956 college graduates who was prepared to teach gone instead into some other occupation, the ratios for physics (where our greatest shortage is) and for social studies (where the least serious situation exists) would have been: physics, 1:173 instead of 1:206; social studies, 1:4 instead of 1:5. And if this should become true during the spring and summer of 1964, the ratios that fall will be: physics, 1:43 instead of 1:53; social studies, 1:1.4 instead of 1:2. Simply luring into teaching the nine per cent who enter some other occupation would not solve the problem, though it would help. As we shall observe in commenting later about the third kind of remedy, however, the raising of teachers' salaries to a genuinely competitive level is *the* basic requirement for an adequate solution of the teacher-shortage problem.

The second of the three kinds of remedies—that of making better use of the teachers we have—is being presented by Professor J. Lloyd Trump to this conference and is the subject of at least two of our discussion groups here. Professor Trump, as you know, is the Director of the newly created NASSP Commission on the Experimental Study of the Utilization of the Staff in the Secondary School. This Commission is already assisting with better teacher-utilization projects in nine secondary schools. All of these projects give promise of resulting not only in the improving of instruction through much better teacher utilization, but also in improved teacher morale through gains in job satisfaction. This is all to the good, and the Commission merits our full support. Some of its projects, most notably the one in St. Paul, give promise of ultimately increasing the number of young people who go into teaching. These projects involve the use of student aids or student cadets, and the likelihood is that many of these will be attracted into teaching.

This brings us to the third kind of remedy—that of vastly increasing the number of young people who prepare themselves as teachers. Over the long haul, of course, there can be no adequate solution of the teacher-

shortage problem other than increasing this number—and then actually getting them into the classroom once they are prepared. In my judgment, the average teacher's salary will have to be at least doubled and top salaries will have to go to \$15,000 a year or higher in order to accomplish either of these necessary purposes, and I think we are derelict as professional people if we don't say so. In my opinion, we are selling our country as well as our pupils short if by what we do or say, or by what we fail to do or say, we give the public to understand that any other course of action—valuable though it be as a partial solution—will produce enough teachers with the kind of qualifications the emerging future clearly demands. To win public support for the kind of salary schedule which will attract enough capable young people into the teaching profession and keep them there, it seems to me self-evident that, in addition to decent provisions for increases in base pay for every teacher as successful experience is gained, a merit plan must be devised which will operate to recognize and to reward those who demonstrate exceptional capabilities.

Though it is the *sine qua non*, the raising of teachers' salaries is by no means the only thing that must be done to attract a vastly larger number of young people into teacher training and, later, into the classroom. Substantial units of work relating to public education should be included in the curriculum of every public secondary school; at the present time we have our pupils make a serious study of all the important functions of community living except education, the biggest and most important of all these functions. Similar work should be offered in every adult education program; the enthusiastic response of the lay citizens of this country to the six educational problems dealt with in the White House Conference on Education—and the no less enthusiastic response to these same questions in the hundreds, if not thousands of, local, county, and state conferences which preceded the grand finale in Washington, D. C.—clearly demonstrated that large and influential elements of the lay public are eager for such study. The formation of chapters of the Future Teachers of America should be encouraged in every high school, and pre-teaching experiences should be provided for the guidance of all interested youths of reasonable promise. And teaching itself should be made more significant, and hence more challenging to capable youths, through better teacher utilization in every subject of instruction—a new frontier which the newly created NASSP Commission already noted gives every indication of exploring quite thoroughly under the capable leadership of Professor Trump.

DEVELOPMENT OF SCIENTISTS AND ENGINEERS

ROBERT L. CLARK

THE panel this morning has been asked to discuss three major problems in the manpower field—science and engineering; teachers; and manpower for the armed forces. I have been asked to deal with the first of these three—science and engineering—because that is presumably my business. Actually the Committee which I represent today is concerned with all three.

When the President organized the National Committee for the Development of Scientists and Engineers, he put the key word *development* in the title. He meant, of course, that we were to concern ourselves first with increasing the supply and improving the quality of our engineers and scientists. Obviously we cannot develop good scientists and engineers unless we have good teachers and good teaching—so that's our business too!

The last of the three subjects assigned to the panel this morning—manpower for the armed forces—is of concern to us because a major reason why we need more scientists and engineers is the ever-growing requirement for technologically trained individuals in the armed forces. And let me assure you that the current military demand for scientifically trained manpower and supporting technicians is only prologue.

But I will try to stay out of my colleagues' way this morning and talk about why the problem of scientists and engineers keeps getting on the agenda of national conferences—and a little bit of what might be done about it. I will lay heavy emphasis on the "why" because it is the basis for any legitimate attempt to orient youth toward careers in science.

There is no better way to bring home what I want to say about the scientific manpower problem than to call your attention to a short two-page illustrated article in the January 28, 1957, issue of *Life* magazine. The article starts with the sentence: "An historic experiment smashed one of the most cherished 'natural laws' of nuclear physics last week." The article proceeds to tell of some significant research at Columbia University which led to the destruction of the theory that microscopic particles always behave symmetrically. The research findings substitute evidence that particles may be "right-handed" or "left-handed." For some people, the rest of the article, dealing with the Columbia investigators themselves, must also have destroyed some fundamental preconceptions—or misconceptions. All three of the scientists were Chinese—and one was a woman!

It seems to me that three key elements of the question I am to discuss this morning are illustrated vividly by this development at Columbia as described by *Life*. First, basic scientific discoveries are exploding all about us, opening up vast new vistas and stirring up a whole host of unanswered

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questions for a new generation of scientists and mathematicians. Never on any frontier were adventurous opportunities so great.

Second, the power to open up this new knowledge is not the sole prerogative of the United States and of its friends. Scientific talent knows no racial or geographic boundaries. The Chinese scientists described in *Life* were at Columbia University, in New York City, but the native ability to undertake this kind of endeavor could flower elsewhere than in the United States.

Finally, the fact that one of these outstanding scientists was a woman illustrates the importance of tapping all our resources; and indicates that any effort to expand our scientific personnel base by making fuller opportunities available to women can be very rewarding.

You have heard a great deal in the last few years about the shortage of scientists and engineers. It is worth spending a moment on the causes of the shortage. The major cause is not a decrease in supply, but a tremendous increase in the demand. The supply of engineers today is actually larger than it was before the war and will now be increasing every year. According to the census, the number of engineers in 1940 approximated 260 thousand; it is estimated that at present there are something like 700 thousand. This growth has been under way for a long time. While the labor force has grown five times since 1870, employment in science and technology has increased by 85 times, or 17 times as fast as the labor force.

New discoveries are constantly opening up opportunities for scientific endeavor. And with the increasing public recognition of the importance of technological development to a growing economy and to our national security, both industry and government have increased markedly the financing of basic and applied research. All this steps up the requirement for scientific and technological personnel in research and development, and places an even more serious requirement upon us for competent teachers to bring along the new supply.

These basic needs are given further impetus by another set of factors over which we have no control—technological progress in Russia. Science and technology are universal. We have no monopoly. And Russia is rapidly outpacing the United States in the rate of increase in the production of scientists and engineers. Someone has described this as the cold war of the classrooms. While apparently we have at present more engineers in total than Russia, we know for a certainty that the number of scientists, engineers, and technicians being produced in Russia exceeds our annual output by a substantial margin. According to former Senator Benton who visited the Soviet Union recently, Russia increased its output of trained engineers by 1,300 per cent from 1929 to 1954. Our increase for the same period was about 225 per cent.¹ In the decade 1950 to 1960 the Soviet Union is expected to produce 1.2 million trained engineers and scientists compared to our estimated 900,000.²

¹Testimony of former Senator Benton before Price Subcommittee, p. 414.

²Testimony of C. I. A. Director Dulles before the Joint Committee on Atomic Energy, p. 78.

Until lately we have not known too much about the quality of training, or of the end product of this training, in Russia. However, as our own scientists come into contact with the new crop at international meetings and in visits to Russia, we are getting increasing testimony that the quality of the Soviet product is of a high order. We are also gathering more precise information about the educational system itself. For some time we have known about the heavy emphasis on mathematics and science in the curriculum. There were some who believed that the rigidities in the curriculum and in the methods of teaching would not produce an imaginative and original scientist. We now know something about the extracurricular programs for Soviet youth—programs designed primarily for the better minds. These programs are not haphazard, but are built into the educational structure in a way that enormously expands and enriches it. Motivation, observation, experimentation, opportunities for association with advanced scholars—all these are provided in abundance for those with talent and aptitude. The combination of thorough grounding in the fundamentals in the schools and the outside opportunity for original work is bound to have a marked effect on the product of the system.

There is, of course, no need for America to revise its whole educational structure to meet the potential of Russian competition, but it would be utter folly to ignore the programs that make Russia a capable and dangerous competitor, particularly in military technology—aeronautics, nucleonics, and electronics. It takes twenty-five years to make a scientist or an engineer. If we find out ten years from now that we have been asleep at the switch, we cannot correct the situation with some sort of prefabricated, synthetic manpower.

What we must do is to determine fairly our own needs, and the needs of our friends, and of the uncommitted nations of the earth. We must then consciously, and conscientiously, provide for those needs, always keeping a weather eye on anything that is happening elsewhere in the world that would make the prudent man revise his estimates.

Anyone familiar with the manpower problem involved in meeting even our minimum needs knows that there can be no waste in the process. In the first place, we are for the time being in a population squeeze which has produced a short-term stringency of scientists and engineers. Assuming that demand will continue to increase in line with past trends, supply becomes a major problem for the next five to ten years.

As we all remember, our country's birth rates in the depression thirties sharply declined. The trough came in 1932 and a gradual increase began which culminated in a new high plateau after the war. If one assumes that youths enter college at seventeen and graduate at twenty-one, then it is obvious that our population of college age is still affected by the depression. This "lean" generation is just now getting through college. It is small comfort to know that in ten to fifteen years the number of persons in this particular age bracket will almost double.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics estimates that from 1940 to the early 1950's the population eighteen to twenty-one years of age has shown a numerical decline of about 1,000,000. While the number has just begun to rise, it will be 1960 before this age group again equals the level of the early 1940's. As the lean cohort completes college and goes into the labor force, its total effect in the next ten years will be to bring about a positive decrease of about $\frac{3}{4}$ million in the number of men in the age group twenty-five to thirty-four. As we all realize this is the group on which we rely for our young engineers and scientists. In this age group too we typically find the imaginative persons who so often break through the frontiers of science to new ground.

There are several ways in which we can improve our situation. In the first place, we can make better use of the scientific and technological personnel we now have. The National Committee recognized this very early in its deliberations and organized a Task Force to investigate the ways in which we could improve utilization of scientists and engineers. Some people have estimated that, if we could improve the use of the existing scientists and engineers as much as five or ten per cent, we could solve the problem of the current shortage. This, however, is not an easy task. Even during the last World War, with manpower shortage pressures upon us, it was almost impossible to get across to the enormous number of employers of scientists and engineers and other skilled workers the techniques of improving their effectiveness. After the techniques had been developed and widely disseminated, employers were often slow to adopt them. Modern industry is too complex to make rapid adjustments for an individual worker, or class of workers, which by a chain reaction may involve hundreds or thousands of other workers.

The next most immediate solution of our problem would be to cut down the attrition among students at the college level. This can be done best, of course, by improving the preparation of such students before they enter college. Proper guidance and good remedial courses at the college level might make some improvement in the situation.

It is even more important that we reduce the loss of high-grade students between high school and college. Less than half of the top one fifth of the graduating classes in American high schools go on to college. This group could be a rich source of professional manpower. Steps must be taken to open up educational opportunities to these people and to make sure that no impediments, financial or otherwise, stand in the way of their taking advanced training.

Most important of all, however, is to do something effective about motivating young people now going through school, at both the senior high-school level, and the junior high-school level, where some of the initial course determinations create blocks which can never later be overcome.

There has been a great deal said about the necessity of identifying talented youth at an early age and providing for their motivation into

careers that will develop their full potential. It is generally agreed that it is easier to identify talent than to motivate individuals. Many ways to motivate have been suggested, including the education of parents, the elaborate counseling of young students, and the creation of a climate through radio, television, and the press, which attracts youngsters toward careers in science.

But none of these techniques measures up to the effect of first-rate teaching—to the enthusiasm of an able and well-informed teacher who knows his material thoroughly and who can impart not only subject matter but also understanding of the subject. This all adds up to the fact that there is no real substitute for good teachers and good teaching. Any national or state or local program which does not have improvement of teaching as its core is bound to be ineffective. Unfortunately the shortage of teachers does not help this situation—as my colleague on the panel has demonstrated this morning.

By pointing out the problems, I haven't provided you with solutions. I am somewhat in the position of Mark Twain who came up with a solution for the submarine menace. He suggested that all we needed to do to rid ourselves of enemy submarines was to bring the ocean to a boil. When asked how he would do that, he replied that he had come up with the solution; it was someone else's job to boil the water!

But I won't leave the pot simmering. I have suggested, I think, the nature of the problems. They are so massive that I am sure you will agree that no individual or group of individuals have it within their power to take all the corrective steps.

I would suggest, and the National Committee which I represent agrees, that all the groups in the community concerned with education and the national welfare should deliberately and formally join forces to: (1) provide the means and the facilities for first-rate education; (2) assure that local youth get a forthright and honest appraisal of the opportunities and challenges of careers in science and engineering, including teaching in these fields; and (3) take steps to see that a climate of opinion is created which will make youth want to understand the world of science in which he lives, whether or not he plans to make a career in the scientific or engineering field.

The concerted approach that I am recommending—to be jointly taken by educators, industrialists, labor representatives, scientists, and engineers—is now actively going forward in states and communities over the United States. At the State level, for instance, Oklahoma, New Jersey, Florida, and North Carolina, have outstanding cooperative programs under way. Washington, D. C.; Kansas City, Mo.; New York City; and Albuquerque, New Mexico, are in the active group at the local level. I have selected these only to illustrate how wide-spread geographically this activity is. Most of the states and many local communities are well advanced in drawing on all their resources of interest and good will.

In every instance of joint endeavor that we know of, the high-school principal plays an extremely important part. The President's Committee, on which your organization has been so ably represented, is looking to you to provide the same kind of professional advice and assistance in local and state cooperative groups which it is providing at the national level. It is this joint effort that will get the job done!

MANPOWER NEEDS FOR THE ARMED FORCES

ALBERT KAY

WHEN we speak of defense manpower needs today, we think not only of the numbers and skills needed in the Active and Reserve Forces, but also of the numbers and skills needed in the defense-supporting economy now and in the event of mobilization. It is perfectly clear that the Armed Forces must continue to have the most advanced weapons and equipment we can give them. Today's complex weapons systems and equipments are conceived in scientific laboratories, and produced in a highly organized industrial economy, which requires ever-increasing numbers of professional, technical, and management skills of all sorts.

The Armed Forces themselves have also witnessed increasing demands for specialized manpower in recent years. The Armed Forces are becoming increasingly technical in character, and that trend is continuing.

Meeting these specialized manpower requirements underlines the need for the fullest development of our manpower resources from the national security point of view. All of us recognize the basic role and function of the secondary-school structure in meeting this need and objective.

The Services also look to the schools to give young people a real understanding of our institutions and our way of life, and an understanding of why military service is necessary in these times to protect that way of life. Too often, the lack of such understanding results in negative attitudes to military service.

The Armed Forces today number approximately 2.8 million. To maintain current strength, they will continue to require large numbers of new personnel each year to replace those separating due to completions of tours of duty, retirement, or other causes. Selective Service will be necessary as far as we can see ahead. Experience over the years indicates that we have not been able to maintain Armed Forces in excess of 1.5 million by voluntary recruitment alone.

In addition to the continued substantial numerical requirements of the Armed Services, there has been a progressive increase in their qualitative needs. Although the dramatic advances in military technology over the last decade are rather well known, their effects on the military per-

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sonnel structure may not be fully appreciated. At the end of World War II, about one third of all enlisted jobs were in occupations which are classified as "technical" or "mechanics" jobs in the civilian economy. These fields now account for approximately forty-five per cent of all enlisted jobs.

Included in this broad technical grouping are such jobs as electronic technicians, aircraft and engine mechanics, electrical equipment repairmen, air traffic control operators, medical and dental technicians, draftsmen and surveyors, *etc.* Increases in requirements have been particularly pronounced in highly complex fields, such as radar and armament systems maintenance, and completely new requirements have emerged in the guided missiles and nuclear weapons fields, among others. There is every reason to believe that the basic trend towards a more technical and specialized military force will continue.

There are attractive training opportunities in the technical and mechanical skills in all Services. Over 300,000 received formal school training in these skills in the fiscal year of 1955. Despite these large-scale training programs, serious shortages of qualified career personnel exist in most of the technical skills because of high personnel turnover. Through improvements in pay, survivor benefits, dependents' medical care, assignment practices, and in many other career incentives, the turnover rate has recently been reduced. However, substantial numbers of men are still needed who will stay with the Services on a career basis, after training in the technical skills. Guidance counselors in the schools can help by presenting military career opportunities to individuals who have aptitudes and objectives for skill training.

With the passage of the Reserve Forces Act of 1955, there are now over thirty ways by which an individual may discharge his military obligation. One of the principal purposes of this forward-looking Act is to afford young men greater flexibility of choice for fulfilling the military obligation in relation to their own career plans. Guidance counselors in the schools should be fully informed about all these options as they affect various career patterns.

Appropriate pre-military guidance materials are contained in the publication: *Your Life Plans and the Armed Forces*, with accompanying Teacher's Handbook. These were prepared by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and published by the American Council on Education. The main purpose of these materials is to assist students to approach the task of choosing and planning a lifetime career on a systematic basis through appropriate consideration of many factors affecting that career, including military service. The materials provide considerable information on the various service options, and on the educational opportunities available in the Armed Forces. They have been made available to all secondary schools and colleges in the country by the American Council on Education. To date, they are in use in 120 high schools.

The Defense Department is constantly striving to improve the usefulness of these pre-military guidance materials. At the request of the Defense Department, Dr. Paul Elicker, Executive Secretary of the NASSP, has accepted the responsibility for directing and coordinating a project to be known as "An Evaluation of Military Information Media for Secondary Schools." Dr. Carl A. Jessen has been appointed as Project Director. Conferences of regional representatives of educational and allied associations will be held in eight geographical areas of the country. The conferences will develop recommendations for the further development and use of the pre-military guidance materials contained in *Your Life Plans and the Armed Forces*.

Basically, we believe there is a serious need for the strengthening of counseling and guidance services. It has seemed to us that there has been insufficient stress on military service as a fruitful career. Perhaps this is due, in part, to lack of knowledge of training and career development opportunities in the various technical skills, and of the continuing need for junior officers who will stay with us. There has probably also been a lack of complete knowledge of the many options for fulfilling the military obligation which are open to individuals whose career plans lie in civilian fields involving post-high-school education, or training in industry. In short, if school counseling is to help channel qualified and motivated individuals into the needed areas of civilian and military training, counselors must have more information about military obligations and methods of fulfilling them.

Luncheon Meeting

Tuesday, February 26, 12:00 Noon—2:00 P.M.

TERRACE ROOM, SHOREHAM HOTEL

Presiding: William T. Gruhn, Professor of Education, University of Connecticut, Storrs, Connecticut; Chairman of the Committee on Junior High School Education of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Address:

OUR EXPERIMENTAL STUDIES ON UTILIZATION OF STAFF IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

J. LLOYD TRUMP

MOST of you in attendance this afternoon are acutely aware of four momentous changes that are affecting secondary-school education: more students to educate, much more knowledge to teach, more competition for tax funds when there is significant shrinkage in the purchasing power of the dollar, and an ever-increasing shortage of teachers. Even though these are external forces, they must be faced by educational leaders; how the changes are met will determine whether the quality of education is to increase or decrease in the years ahead.

The impact of these changes has been particularly heavy on junior high schools. Problems of increases in numbers of students are especially acute for a number of reasons. The assumption that one of the functions of the junior high school is to provide opportunities for early adolescent youth to discover interests and engage in self appraisal with respect to abilities and interests complicates the tasks facing administrators and staff when there are more students and more knowledge. At the same time, the professional staff of the typical junior high school has not been trained specifically for teaching at that level; some are elementary teachers who have moved to upper grades, while others are senior high-school teachers who have been employed to teach at the junior high-school level. Competition for the time and efforts of students is keen; the fundamental skills of communication and computation must be developed while students are continuously exploring newer fields of knowledge and endeavor.

Experiences as consultant to the Illinois Junior High School Association and visitor in a large number of junior high schools lead me to the conclusion that junior high-school principals and teachers are especially

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interested in better ways of doing things. The problems which I have mentioned lead to a desire for re-examination and experimentation. Such re-examination should include not only curriculum content, purposes of instruction, and methods of teaching, but also the ways in which teachers are utilized in junior high schools.

HISTORY OF THE COMMISSION

Working under the assumption that, even though junior and senior high schools and teacher education institutions utilize improved methods of recruiting able young men and women for the teaching profession and that school systems make teaching more attractive by paying higher salaries, the probability of meeting the teacher shortage only by such efforts is small, the Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals has for some time been seeking other solutions to the shortage problem. The committee realized that the shortage problem was further complicated by the fact that professions other than teaching are also seeking the services of an increasing number of able young people. Early contacts with representatives of the Fund for the Advancement of Education indicated considerable interest in supporting experimental projects.

The NASSP Executive Committee in May 1956 appointed a Commission on the Experimental Study of the Utilization of the Staff in the Secondary School. Dr. C. W. Sanford, Dean of Admissions of the University of Illinois, who had been active in this program as Chairman of the Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development, was named Chairman of the Commission. Other members appointed were Matthew P. Gaffney, Professor of Education, Harvard University; Lloyd S. Michael, Superintendent, Evanston Township High School; Clifford F. Skinner, Vice-Principal, Roosevelt High School, Portland, Oregon; James G. Umstattd, Professor of Secondary Education, University of Texas; Glenn F. Varner, Assistant Superintendent for Secondary and Vocational Education, St. Paul, Minnesota, Public Schools; Raymond G. Wilson, Executive Secretary of the Commission on Secondary Schools of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools; George L. Cleland, Secondary-School Consultant of the State Department of Education, Topeka, Kansas; and Leo Barry, Principal of the Newton High School at Newtonville, Massachusetts. The Commission suffered a severe loss at the untimely death of Dr. Barry in September. Your speaker, who had been serving as Professor of Education, Head of Teacher Placement, and Chairman of the Division of Educational Administration of the College of Education at the University of Illinois, was asked to serve as Director of the Commission.

The Commission has held four meetings to adopt criteria for the selection of experimental projects, recommend projects for support by the Fund for the Advancement of Education, develop standards of evaluation, set policies, and provide other services in connection with the program.

From the very beginning, the Commission has received very valuable assistance from Dr. Lester Nelson, formerly principal of the high school at Scarsdale, New York, and for the past three years, a consultant to the Fund for the Advancement of Education, and from Dr. Paul E. Elicker, NASSP Executive Secretary. Dr. Ralph Tyler, Director of the Center for the Advanced Study of the Behavioral Sciences at Stanford, California, and many others, have given valuable advice. The Commission approached the task of developing experimental studies with a number of basic assumptions. These six were included in my presentation at the Junior High School Luncheon at the beginning of our Convention.

EXPERIMENTAL STUDIES

The Commission has at the present time approved nine experimental studies which in turn have received financial support from the Fund for the Advancement of Education. These studies are located in secondary schools in Evanston, Illinois; Newton, Massachusetts; Richwood, West Virginia; Beecher, Illinois; St. Paul, Minnesota; Westside Community School, Omaha, Nebraska; Syosset, New York; Roseville, Minnesota; and Snyder, Texas. Five of the nine studies involve students in the junior high-school grades. Time does not permit an adequate description of these studies; more will be told about them in discussion groups this afternoon and tomorrow morning. While the studies do not provide as comprehensive an attack on problems of staff utilization as we would like, they do represent important beginnings and show significant potential.

The Westside Community School is located in a rapidly growing area adjoining Omaha, Nebraska. Under the leadership of an imaginative teacher and aided by the administration and consultant help from the University of Nebraska, more effective utilization of sound tapes and tape recorders is being studied. Explanatory materials, drill exercises, and other aids to learning for students of different levels of ability and achievement are being recorded on tape by teachers. Students in groups of different sizes, depending on the activity, listen and follow instructions through earphones. Students are usually seated in groups of four around a table in the center of which is a distribution box, wired on one side to the tape recorder and on the other to individual plastic earphones. Each student has one earphone, thus he can easily hear oral instructions without removing the earphone. Apparently, students concentrate much better while listening through an earphone than to a central loudspeaker. Tape recorders have been used in many schools for diagnostic and enrichment purposes; but in this experiment, the tape recorder becomes a veritable workhorse. Possible effects on teacher energy and output, instructional outcomes, in-service professional growth of teachers, and instruction in classes of different sizes are being analyzed carefully. The first experimentation involves classes in junior high-school spelling and Spanish.

In the junior high-school grades of the Alexander Ramsey High School, located in Roseville, Minnesota, a rapidly growing area outside St. Paul, methods of improving instruction in larger than usual general science classes are being studied. Incidentally, in this relatively large six-year high school, there are no study halls which in itself constitutes quite a saving of teacher time. Since facilities for individual student experimentation are limited in large science classes, additional opportunities for students are being provided by keeping science laboratories open daily during activities periods and Saturday morning so that competent and interested students may work under the direction of cadet science teachers from nearby universities and scientists on loan from industry. The effects of these extra science periods on the total quality of instruction in science, as well as on the most gifted students, are being analyzed carefully with the aid of consultant help from the University of Minnesota.

The Syoset, New York, school, in a newly organized school district, currently enrolls students in grades seven through ten. The school building is somewhat unique in that it provides classroom groupings principally by grade levels rather than by departments. The classrooms for each grade level are grouped around a central "project area" which makes possible closer working relationships among teachers and easy adaptations for instructing students in different sized groups with the use of a variety of modern teaching aids including television, recordings, films, mock-ups, and other concrete materials. The "project area" is large enough to include all 300 students in the grade or "small school" and permits any portion of them to assemble easily. Each group of teachers will study values in clerical assistance, use of readily available curriculum workshop materials, services of guidance personnel, and other arrangements within the "small school" grouping.

Promising ways of increasing teacher effectiveness both quantitatively and qualitatively will be tested in the experiment in Synder, Texas. Teachers will be freed from usual schedules in order to provide for more constructive planning and coordination of learning experiences with relatively larger groups of students during part of the time. Classes will be organized around the educational conference design with teaching-learning experiences following the unit pattern. Techniques for dealing effectively with larger classes will be studied; more than usual use will be made of electronic and mechanical teaching aids and teacher assistance. Major emphasis will be placed on the development of independent student responsibility. In the first stages of the experiment, students in general science are being assembled in numbers of 75 to 80 for parts of the instruction when new units are being introduced and demonstrations given. This provides teachers with more time for preparation and work with individual students. Junior and senior high-school teachers in other departments are observing the early experimentation to see whether the program should be extended further.

In a relatively small school in Beecher, Illinois, experimentation involves the use of high-school students as teacher assistants in instructing students in home-making, physical education, and other classes in the junior high-school grades. Clerical and non-professional assistants are also being tried as well as certain material aids to instruction. The emphasis here is on discovering ways of improving staff utilization in a small school.

Other experiments in the improvement of staff utilization in senior high schools have implications for junior high schools. The work in Evanston, for example, involving the use of closed-circuit television for instructing larger groups of students by linking classrooms is certainly relevant.

In Snyder, Texas, closed-circuit television is being used within the same room in order to make it possible for students who are seated at some distance from the instructor to see demonstrations more clearly. Television cameras are focused on the blackboard and on the demonstration table with viewing receivers stationed at strategic points in the room so that whenever the teacher wishes to demonstrate something or put some material on the board, the students may glance at a nearby television receiver and see the material enlarged sufficiently so that it is readily visible to him regardless of how far he may be seated from the instructor. As a matter of fact, it would appear that students could see better in such a situation than they could even in a regular size classroom.

The experiments in Newton, Massachusetts, where students in English are brought together from several grade levels for instruction in certain phases of composition or literature by teachers who are particularly effective in doing specific tasks has implications for instruction in junior high schools as well. Similarly, in Richwood, West Virginia, the use of a bus driver for behind-the-wheel instruction in driver education, serving as a non-professional assistant to a fully qualified driver education teacher, suggests the possibility for a junior high-school staff to select persons in the community who may be competent to do a particular job working under the direction of the fully qualified teacher, thus saving time and energy of the teacher. High-school students in St. Paul, Minnesota, recruited from among the one half of the upper quarter of students who were not going to college, will serve as teacher assistants in junior high schools as well as in senior high schools. It is possible that this service may not only make teaching more effective and easier for the regular classroom teachers, but also may be valuable experience for the assistants in their teacher education program.

As you leave the meeting room this afternoon, you will receive a copy of a brochure published last week under authorization of the Commission, with financial support by the Fund for the Advancement of Education. The brochure entitled *An Exciting Profession: New Horizons for Secondary-School Teachers* includes, among other items, an outline of more than one hundred possible studies of staff utilization that might be

made. These studies are listed under nine major headings. Even though similar studies may have been conducted elsewhere and the resultant data point very closely to desirable changes, the effects upon local practices are likely to be more pronounced if studies are made in the local setting. Suggestions are given in the brochure for making these studies. Also included in the brochure are more than fifty questions which need to be answered one way or another in local communities all over the country. The suggestion is made that parents, students, and other lay citizens participate with professional persons in finding answers to these questions.

Anyone engaged in experimentation must be concerned at all stages with evaluation. The results will have to be analyzed in terms of learning outcomes, costs of instruction, pupil-teacher ratio in individual subjects and in the total school, and the feelings which teachers and students have as a consequence of the changed procedures.

CONCLUSIONS

No one need apologize for the achievements of present junior high schools. No where in the world, past or present, have so many students been educated so well. Constant striving for further improvements has been the essence of these accomplishments.

The Commission has repeatedly stated that it has no pre-conceived notions relative to what improvements in staff utilization or what methods for meeting the shortage of teachers are best. We do believe educational leaders, along with lay and professional groups in their communities, have responsibility for a continuous examination of the practices we are following. We believe, moreover, that professional people should be willing to support change when that change on the basis of experimentation is indicated as being desirable. We believe that a professional group has the responsibility for exercising imagination, ingenuity, and experimental approaches to the solution of problems.

Teaching must be made a more rewarding, satisfying, and, to a certain extent at least, a less difficult profession. To reach that objective, with more pupils to educate, more knowledge to dispense, with higher costs and an inflated dollar, and with fewer available teachers, is a challenge we lay at your doorstep. The Commission solicits your interest, cooperation, and assistance.

Sixth General Session

Tuesday, February 26, 8:00 P.M.

SHERATON HALL, SHERATON-PARK HOTEL

Presiding: *Cliff Robinson*, Director of Secondary Education, State Department of Education, Salem, Oregon; Member of the Executive Committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Music by the Washington-Lee High School Orchestra, Arlington, Virginia; *Mrs. Dorothy Baumlee*, Conductor; *Jerry J. Gerich*, Principal.

El Relicario	<i>Padilla</i>
Finlandia	<i>Sibelius</i>
Liebesfreud	<i>Kreisler</i>
French Military March from Suite Algerienne	<i>Saint-Saens</i>

Pageant: The NEA Centennial Year—1957.

Presented by: Students and teachers of the District of Columbia Public Schools; *Hobart M. Corning*, Superintendent; and the Washington-Lee High School, Arlington, Virginia; *Jerry J. Gerich*, Principal.

Participating Schools:

Coolidge High School, Washington, D. C.; *Cedric O. Reynolds*, Principal.

Deal Junior High School, Washington, D. C.; *Frank A. Stutz*, Principal.

Eastern High School, Washington, D. C.; *Lynn F. Woodworth*, Principal.

McKinley High School, Washington, D. C.; *Charles E. Bish*, Principal.

Roosevelt High School, Washington, D. C.; *Elva C. Wells*, Principal.

Washington-Lee High School, Arlington, Va.; *Jerry J. Gerich*, Principal.

Woodrow Wilson High School, Washington, D. C.; *John F. Brougher*, Principal.

THIS pageant proved to be one of the most interesting events of the Convention. Despite the fact that this was the first time the pageant was presented in its continuous form, the participants made an almost flawless presentation. The pageant depicted outstanding events in the development of the National Education Association over its one hundred years of existence. Included also was a history of the growth and development of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. The audience which packed the auditorium was well pleased with the production.

Seventh General Session

Wednesday, February 27, 1:00 P.M.

SHERATON HALL, SHERATON-PARK HOTEL

Presiding: George L. Cleland, Secondary School Consultant, State Department of Education, Topeka, Kansas; President of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Invocation by George L. Cleland, the presiding officer.

Music by Combined Choruses, McKinley and Anacostia High Schools, Washington, D. C.; Mrs. Beatrice Gilkes, Director, and Charles E. Bish, Principal, McKinley High School; and Mrs. Frances Hughes, Director, and John D. Koontz, Principal, Anacostia High School.

Presentation: Presentation of the New President and other Officers and Executive Committee Members.

Addresses:

THE HARD FACTS OF '57

ERIC SEVAREID

THINGS have changed, here in Washington. The second Eisenhower term has opened in quite a different atmosphere; relationships are changing. What they are doing is becoming more in accord with our normal traditions and experience. The essential chemistry of this capital lies in the power struggle. That is the basic characteristic of government, not smiling good will which, if gathered around unprecedented a table, will automatically generate wisdom, cooperation, and the good life for all; after a long period of almost unprecedented paralysis, the normal power struggle is setting in again.

The Eisenhower honeymoon, possibly the longest ever enjoyed by any American President, including Washington and Calvin Coolidge, is ended, in some important respects; true, the melody lingers on, but the old song is ended, if you really strain your ears to find out. The foreign policy honeymoon is over; the domestic economy honeymoon is over. Even the honeymoon of Eisenhower the man, the personality, is beginning to fray considerably; here, if not so much in the country at large.

Partly, this last alteration is due to the first cause that comes to everybody's mind—the Twenty-second Amendment. A political leader who cannot lead again, pulling his own party ranks with him, intimidating the opposition ranks by his well-earned aura of invincibility—such a leader is bound to discover both straying within his own ranks and a hardening of the emboldened opposition. But apart from this constitu-

Eric Sevarid, of Washington, D. C., is a CBS News Commentator.

tional and electoral factor, the President has now been around here quite a long time; he is no longer something new, fresh, different to this capitol, and this Congress. The immense personal charm and the hero aura—the thing some have called the “Eisenhower magic”—will no longer suffice by itself. For this capital, in these personal terms, the spell is dissipating itself.

One saw this when the President made his State of the Union address last month; for the first time in my own memory, the jointly assembled Congress sat on its hands. It is true that he had, just a few days before, made his more dramatic speech to the same Congress on the Middle East policy; but, *always* before, his appearances on Capitol Hill have generated excitement and this time it did not; one had the feeling that day that it may never again, short of the most extraordinary national circumstances. I am not saying that the Congress as a whole has become anti-Eisenhower; I am not saying it is tired of Eisenhower; merely that the *unique* Eisenhower spell is over on Capitol Hill and that this relationship is going back to its normal, traditional proportions. One saw this again last week, when the President broke short his vacation and came up to meet Congressmen on the Israeli-UN deadlock; it was not only true that they spoke out, in the White House meeting, with a boldness they had never exercised there before, but it is also true that they had forced the President to return from Georgia; he had had no intention of coming back; they insisted on it. These episodes are among the straws that indicate where the psychological breezes are drifting in this capital city.

I have, myself, a strong impression that the President's own state of mind is changing, now that he is in the last lap. It may be simply that the years are gathering upon him; it may be that he feels more assured of his place in history, more beyond the struggles. In any case he seems, in such exchanges as the press conference, a little more brusque, a little more impatient, a little less painstakingly eager to please and avoid injury to anybody's sensibilities. If this means that he is more decided in his own mind as to what he wants, and, particularly, if this means he will *follow through* to a greater degree than before, he could be a better President in his second term than in his first. If it means that his is the state of mind of a man saying to himself, “All right, I've done it the hard way at the risk of my health, I've kept the rest of you in power, no thanks to many of you; I may not have much time left to me and I'm going to enjoy these years to the fullest”—if it means that, then things may get rougher around here; he may even risk what he has so rarely in the past been willing to risk—a real measure of his public popularity.

In one realm of action and policy, he has already crossed a Rubicon and alienated a section of his following. That is in his new budget. That is why I suggested the honeymoon is over as far as domestic economics are concerned. Perhaps I should have said the *form* of this honeymoon is over; the real bride is the general populace and this union may grow even stronger as far as economics are concerned. What the President has

done here is to kick out the mother-in-law, who thought she was along not just for the ride, but as a permanent part of the household. I mean the extreme right wing of the President's party.

They have a feeling today of downright betrayal, though the logic of modern politics always pointed straight to what the regime is now doing. Down in their hearts, most of these people on the extreme right feel nothing has been right since the twenties; reluctantly, many of them have come to accept the high cost and necessity of national defense; reluctantly, a lesser number of them have come to accept the necessity of a certain amount of responsibility for keeping a few foreign economies afloat; virtually none of them have accepted Federal spending for social welfare activities at home and all of them seem passionately convinced that Federal personnel and agencies should be lopped off, wholesale. They never really doubted that with some good, sound Republican business-minded men in office, the latter, at least, would be done, with consequent readjustment of the tax load.

This year, for the first time, the truth has finally penetrated to them—the awful truth that even their own kind of men in office not only aren't going to do all this, but aren't even going to try; this has been a shock to the right wings of traumatic proportions; read their organs of opinion, from the *Wall Street Journal* on out, and you will discover the depth of their bitterness. With them, certainly, the bloom is off, the honeymoon is over; they are drifting back to their accustomed niche of implacable opposition.

This Administration started very slowly down this road of accepting the New Deal philosophy; the tempo increased to quite a crescendo as the Presidential election year was reached; step by step, social welfare and civil libertarian issues were neatly removed from the Democrats' grasp. There appears to be no other way to ensure nineteen sixty, and stay in power, but to act as though the Roosevelt revolution were a permanent part of our national structure, even though they don't admit that in words. This is gall and wormwood for men like Sinclair Weeks and perhaps Mr. Humphrey, certainly former President Hoover; but the realists, the Deweys and Brownells and others—the men who really picked Eisenhower and got him nominated—these men are content enough. They set out, four years ago, to establish a twenty-year reign for their party, if they could do it—and they may do it. And please note that the heir-apparent, Mr. Nixon, has cast his own die—he is detaching himself from his right-wing associations by one statement and action after another—including his attitude on immigration and on the filibuster. He will fight it out with Mr. Knowland or any others as a Liberal with a capital L. Unless a quick depression should catch this regime too unprepared for massive remedial action, it is entirely possible that the Republican Party will become the liberal party of the country.

Far seeing Democrats know this; since there is no other but the liberal road for them to follow themselves, they are deeply perturbed. The Re-

publicans' political ball and chain, their extreme right wing on economic philosophy—is not so heavy as the Democrats' ball and chain, *their* right wing Southerners, so many of them not only ultra conservative on economics, but on civil rights as well. The Democrats no longer have a national leader. The proportions of Stevenson's defeat were too large for him to sustain that place; their congressional leadership cannot possibly lead them nationally, for the simple reason that it is Southern. If meaningful civil rights legislation is again stopped by Southerners, you may see the beginnings of a real splitting up of the Democratic Party; there are Northern Senators—who can read last November's statistical returns perfectly well—who are almost ready now to accept in their hearts the necessity for a break-off. And maybe some of the Southern Democrats are in the same mood—for their own reasons.

In terms of the domestic economy, the nature of the Eisenhower honeymoon has changed, in the sense that the old chaperone has been dropped. In foreign affairs, the honeymoon is just over, period. It looks like a rocky road for some distance ahead. I cannot judge as to feelings in all the rest of the country; but here in this somewhat claustrophobic headquarters, disenchantment is setting in. It is time that it did; the old enchantment never was real; it is only a pity that it took the shocking events of last October to break the spell. One month before the Suez war, the President was saying with scorn that "agonizing politicians" say there is no peace; one week before it, the Secretary of State told the country that we and our British-French allies were in a remarkable condition of common policy agreement as to the Middle East. I shall not argue as to whether they knew better at the time; the point is this: that in spite of endless published and broadcast evidence to the contrary, a complacent people was quite prepared to accept these assurances, almost without question—so widespread was the spell-like feeling that things were essentially all right, strength and wisdom were in charge, everyone could attend to his private business and those who demanded hard answers to hard questions were tiresome cranks at best, contributors to national disunity at worst.

It is this spell that is now over, at least here in the capital; it has been over with those in the second of Washington's two industries, Journalism, for a long time; it is now dissipating with those in the primary industry, politics, because men who inhabit that industry take a little longer, self-preservative instincts being what they are, to challenge the notions of John Doe, the voter.

Suez broke the spell. Vice President Nixon has publicly stated that the United States bears some of the responsibility for that messy Middle Eastern climax; but neither he nor anyone else in authority has spelled out just what we did wrong, when. The real case rests not so much in what we did, but what we didn't do. Our sins in the Mideast were mostly sins of omission, not commission; what might have been is always hard to establish, which is why the Fulbright investigation of our role will

have a difficult time. In my own notion, we do not at all bear the chief responsibility for these miserable events; the British, French, Israelis, after all, inhabited the area, not we. But we—and the United Nations—bear considerable responsibility. However brash and foolish the British and French were (for the Israelis there is more excuse), one cannot get around the truth that we were in command of the alliance, we were the senior partner and, rightly or wrongly, the junior partners lost their faith in our advice and broke away from our influence and control. That is what the history books will put their emphasis upon.

If the easy relationship between the two ends of Pennsylvania Avenue is over, on foreign policy, that is not entirely the fault of the Administration. The Administration must lead the way in foreign policy. Sometimes it has seemed merely to drift, but the President's Mid-eastern declaration is a strong, far reaching move; it is a big action, befitting a big nation. But still, the Senate is nattering it half to death, so that its effect may be considerably lost; and to take on a vast and dangerous responsibility in an atmosphere of skepticism about it, creating great doubt among other nations concerned as to our determination—this is a most disturbing piece of business. Many Congressmen may have considerable justification for feeling that the Administration has drifted, palliated and patched, around the world; but here is a strong, bold Administration proposal and many of the same Congressmen are revealing that they themselves have grown tired of foreign commitments, have themselves no great taste for the disciplines and sacrifices that may be involved. The general result is that the United States is simply not speaking to or appearing to the rest of the watching world as a great power that knows its own mind.

A strong chief executive, acting on his own, can achieve greatly, but he runs great risk of a *very* hard fall when and if he misses; the Democratic Administration, in fifty-two, was finished, before that election was ever held. Anthony Eden leaped high and fell far. A chief executive like Mr. Eisenhower, who does not throw his weight about, who proceeds cautiously, insists on many others sharing the responsibility, whether the others be Congressmen or the United Nations—such a chief executive proceeds more safely—for a time. But he runs another kind of risk. The risk that the others, when things get tough, will continue to play the roles he has invited them to play, even though they may play them negatively; then he finds, having proclaimed time and again that he is not trying to be a boss, that he *cannot* act like the boss, even though a boss may be badly needed. That, I think, is about the position Mr. Eisenhower, and, therefore, Mr. Dulles are in at the moment, however awkwardly I may have expressed it here. They seem to have very little freedom of action remaining to them and now must negotiate with and placate a host of forces, domestic as well as foreign, everywhere they turn.

I suppose what I am saying is that the American government, as a whole, has been losing its momentum in foreign affairs—the important

affairs for our generation. The sharp and shining American spearhead in the world has been blunted and somewhat tarnished; we are grappling with a slippery, many tentacled octopus in the Middle East, and this immensely complex struggle will go on for a long, long time. We are making no progress on the problem we must inevitably resolve some day, of what to do about China; we are in danger of slipping back all the way to the cold-war climate in relation to Russia and have found no way to start liquidating the impossible, dangerous, artificial division of Germany and Europe, no way to get the frightening atomic armaments race under control.

Washington is somewhat winded at this moment; this is a government that has not yet found its second wind; I think it will, because it must, and because this capital is by no means bereft of able and devoted men. One way or another, we will combine our efforts, one way or another we will get on with the great business of doing America in the world.

I do not think, myself, there is much danger of war of serious proportions in or over the Middle East; the elements for that are just not there. Middle Europe, as so often before in history, is the center of real danger. Affairs there are most delicately balanced at the moment; Russia can no longer count on the armies of the satellite states—any of them—to fight on her side; she now must count on the possibility, in case of war, that they would, indeed, fight against her. This is a drastic shift of power forces. On the other side of Europe, the Western Alliance defense force is becoming raddled, losing its common determination and purpose; West Germany is becoming restless under the Adenauer policy of western alliance; the autumn election there may put great changes into motion and Germany may begin to move toward her own deal with Russia. No one knows, at the moment, which way Poland is going to slide; no one knows if, or where, another explosion, on the Hungarian model, will produce another crisis, involving big powers. If, as it seemed to some men here, there was an opportunity this fall and winter to begin negotiations with Russia for a mutual withdrawal from the center of Europe, that opportunity seems to have been lost, at least for the time. The Russians, very nervous last autumn, now seem more sure of themselves again and are talking, at least for public consumption, of a withdrawal price too high for us to pay.

But this meat cleaver division of the ancient European civilization cannot go on forever; the potential danger of big war is too great. My own notion of the *nature* of the danger is this: not a danger of another nineteen thirty-nine, with one power deliberately bringing on big war by premeditated aggression; rather, the danger of another nineteen fourteen, with events, first small ones, then bigger ones, slipping progressively out of *everybody's* control until even the reluctant are forced to fight.

This *could* happen; but, as is usual in the flow of history, opposite forces are also at work. It is becoming hard to believe that internally, the Russian governing system can grow *more* despotic; there is much to sug-

gest that it must grow less so, more mindful of its people's peaceable desires. There is much to suggest that, if no new explosion intervenes, Russian control outside her own borders must eventually grow weaker. There is hard evidence that Western Europe, her imperial powers and ambitions now so frustrated and nearly gone, will draw more and more together, with the British finally included, and, perhaps, become a great, steadying third force, not neutral as between America and Russia, but a buffer of sorts, just the same, tending to lessen the direct East-West tensions, tending to reduce this dangerous two-power polarization of the world. These yeasts are working, too.

One is driven back upon the obvious, the almost platitudinous—the world will either blow itself up, or it will enter onto a plateau of spreading peace and spreading well being. *Men* will determine which direction it is to be. Men are not the helpless pawns of historical forces. Certainly not Americans, who have great freedom of choices, if they wish to exercise it.

It is not for the likes of me to write the prescriptions. I would make but one suggestion. There must be a continuous flow of the hard facts out of this political, military, diplomatic headquarters of Washington, no matter how unpleasant they may be at times, no matter how much they may affront various popular notions and day dreams. And there must be continuous attention paid to these facts by you and everyone else who accepts the high responsibility of being an American in this drifting world. I was taught in school that *eternal* vigilance is the price of liberty; I have an old fashioned idea that is still true.

And I have a new fashioned idea that eternal vigilance is also the price of *existence*.

The beginning of all this, of course, lies with the young, mostly in the schools. People like me can't make others aware if people like you haven't prepared their minds for awareness long before. I hope you are doing your job, because if you aren't, you'll put me out of business sooner or later.

Summary of the Convention

DR. IVAN A. BOOKER

Assistant Director, Press and Radio Relations of NEA
In Charge of the Convention Press Room

CHANGES in educational practice implied by current happenings in the nation and in the world were central in the deliberations of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. More than 5,000 high-school administrators were in attendance at this Convention, which had as its theme, *Our Secondary Schools—Citadels for Peace*. The Association, with more than 16,000 members, is a department of the National Education Association.

Essentially a huge workshop for the exploration of critical problems in the organization and administration of America's rapidly growing high schools, the Convention, nevertheless, gave major attention to present-day affairs. From the opening remarks of the District of Columbia Superintendent of Schools, Dr. Hobart M. Corning, to the closing address by Eric Sevareid, the realities of the world of 1957 were stressed by such men as Norman Cousins, editor of the *Saturday Review*; The Rev. Edward L. R. Elson, Pastor of the National Presbyterian Church in Washington; Harold E. Stassen, special assistant to President Eisenhower, and Virginius Dabney, editor of the *Richmond Times-Dispatch*. Further international flavor was added by the attendance and formal introduction of seventeen educational visitors from nine countries abroad, and by the appearance of the New York Herald Tribune Forum for High Schools, featuring young men and women from thirty three countries other than the United States as well as two students from the United States who were members of the National Association of Student Council's European Tour of International Understanding (composed of 102 high-school students and sponsors) during the summer of 1956.

Pupil conduct, including practices in school discipline and the role of student councils, was emphasized in several of the group meetings and in informal convention discussions. Also popular were the sessions concerned with the special needs of individual pupils—the gifted, the slow learners, retarded readers, and the socially maladjusted.

Group visits were scheduled to 21 secondary schools in the metropolitan area. Each such group was filled to the limit of available facilities. On twelve tours to places of historic and cultural interest, the total participation was 2,992.

In addition to choral and instrumental groups from high schools in and near Washington, the conventioners were entertained by the U. S. Navy Band, the U. S. Naval Academy Choir, and a spectacular pageant depicting a century of progress in education, presented by students and teachers of the D. C. Public Schools.

D. C. Schools in co-operation with a number of office-equipment business firms provided the Convention with a stenographic and duplicating service that was unique, including manufacture of three issues of a convention-summary bulletin called "Capital Ideas for Principals." Those responsible for this work and giving directions to the scores of students and teachers who participated were Dr. Charles S. Lofton, President of the D. C. Association of Secondary-School Principals, in general charge; Dr. Regis L. Boyle in charge of the editorial work; and Mrs. Elizabeth Mewshaw in charge of the production of the bulletins. A fully equipped production office was made possible by the following companies providing the mechanical equipment: A. B. Dick Company; International Business Machines Company; Remington Rand, Inc.; Gestetner Duplicating Machine Corporation; Royal Typewriter Company; Underwood Corporation; Times Facsimile Corporation—Stenafax; Ralph C. Coxhead Corporation—Vari-typer; Addressograph-Multigraph Corporation; Sound-scriber Sales Corporation; Standard Duplicating Agency; L. C. Smith Typewriter Company; R. C. Allen Business Machines, Inc.; Bostitch Stapler Company; and General Binding Corporation.

Textbooks, other instructional materials, equipment, and school supplies were exhibited by approximately 150 firms.

By and large the appraisal of this record-breaking Convention by those in attendance seems to be accurately wrapped up in the comment of one principal who has attended many such meetings: "unusually well planned; the topics timely; the speakers excellent." "We return to our jobs," said NASSP newly elected president, R. B. Norman, "better equipped and fully determined to assume the important role of leadership outlined for us by Mr. Cousins, the imperative and challenging task of building citizens for 'a good earth.'"

Part III

Annual Business Meeting

Tuesday, February 26, 1957, 4:30 P.M.

BURGUNDY ROOM, SHERATON-PARK HOTEL

Presiding: George L. Cleland, Secondary-School Consultant, State Department of Education, Topeka, Kansas, and President of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals

PRESIDENT Cleland commented on the way the business and professional activities of the Association are carried on throughout the year. Many committees, the Executive Committee, and the central office staff, under the direction of the Executive Secretary, Paul E. Elicker, carry on all activities approved by the Executive Committee, and publish reports in *THE BULLETIN*, the *NASSP News Letter* the *NASSP Spotlight*, and by special communication with the members. He stated that some business must be carried on at the Annual Business meeting.

Election of officers

President Cleland called for a report from the chairman of the Board of Nominators. This was given by Past President, James E. Blue, Principal of West Senior High School in Rockford, Illinois.

For President

R. B. Norman, Principal, Amarillo High School, Amarillo, Texas—from the Southern Region.

For 1st Vice President

George E. Shattuck, Principal, Norwich Free Academy, Norwich, Connecticut—from the New England Region.

For 2nd Vice President

Cliff Robinson, Director of Secondary Education, State Department of Education, Salem, Oregon—from the Western Region.

Member of the Executive Committee for 3 years

James D. Logsdon, Shorewood Junior-Senior High School, Shorewood, Wisconsin—from the North Central Region.

Member of the Executive Committee for 1 year

Eugene S. Thomas, Principal, Central High School, Kalamazoo, Michigan—from the North Central Region.

Other members of the Executive Committee by previous election

George L. Cleland, Secondary-School Consultant, State Department of Education, Topeka, Kansas—from the North Central Region.

James E. Nancarrow, Principal, Upper Darby High School, Upper Darby, Pennsylvania—from the Middle States Region.

On motion, the recommended nominees were unanimously elected to their respective offices for year beginning March 1, 1957.

Resolutions

Several resolutions previously reviewed by the Executive Committee were presented and adopted.

Resolution 1

That the National Association of Secondary-School Principals reaffirm its position that no branch of the military service adopt any plan which will have the effect of removing any youth from the secondary schools for the purpose of fulfilling the active duty obligation except in the case of an emergency declared by the Congress and the President of the United States.

Resolution 2

That the National Association of Secondary-School Principals request that the appropriate National Selective Service personnel give thoughtful consideration to the proposal that no certified professional educational person, including teachers, supervisors, and administrators, be called into military service during any school year in which he has already begun his professional duties.

Resolution 3

We recognize the many fine contributions made to the work of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals by Harold B. Brooks through his service on the Executive Committee; we recognize his wise and inspiring leadership as President of the Association; we recognize especially his help and guidance in establishing the National Advisory Council with its plan for awarding Certificates of Appreciation to stimulate and promote the work of state associations; we record our appreciation of the outstanding service which he rendered in behalf of the junior high school as an integral part of public secondary education.

We express our deep regret at his untimely death and extend to his family, friends, and professional associates our sincere sympathy.

We request that a copy of this resolution be sent to the family of Harold B. Brooks, to the Superintendent of Schools, Long Beach, California, to the Principal and faculty of the Benjamin Franklin Junior High School, Long Beach, California, and to the President of the California Association of Secondary-School Administrators.

The New Constitution

James D. Logsdon, Chairman of the Committee on Association Study, presented the significant changes in the new constitution, which was accepted on February 26, 1957, at the Annual Business Meeting, printed in the April and the November 1956 issues of THE BULLETIN. Following is the constitution which was adopted. The new parts are in italics.

This constitution was officially adopted at the Annual Business Meeting of the Association in the Sheraton-Park Hotel, Washington, D. C., on February 26, 1957. All provisions in the constitution become effective on March 1, 1957, except the terms of officers and members of the Executive Committee and the provisions for regional representations. These exceptions will operate until March 1, 1958, in accordance with the Constitution in effect when they were nominated on February 25, 1957 and subsequently elected on February 26, 1957.

The Constitution of the National Association
of
Secondary-School Principals
Effective March 1, 1957

ARTICLE I—Name

The name of this organization shall be the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, a *Department* of the National Education Association.

ARTICLE II—Purposes

The Association shall advance the cause of secondary education by providing information and leadership in such matters as administration and supervision, by encouraging research, by promoting high professional standards, by focusing attention on national educational problems, and shall join with other professional organizations in the solution of problems of education at the national level.

ARTICLE III—Membership

SECTION 1. The membership of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals shall consist of four classes: active, associate, institutional, and life.

SECTION 2. All individuals shall be eligible to active membership who are engaged in (a) *secondary-school administration and/or supervision*; (b) *teaching secondary education upon payment of the annual fee of \$8.00 to the executive secretary.*

SECTION 3. Members of state organizations of secondary-school principals shall be eligible to active membership in the National Association of Secondary-School Principals by the payment of the annual fee of \$5.00 through the state secretary or representative.

SECTION 4. All other persons interested in secondary education shall be eligible to associate membership upon payment of the annual fee of \$8.00 to the executive secretary.

SECTION 5. Institutional membership shall be open to all secondary schools and libraries and other educational institutions. The annual dues of \$12.00 shall be paid by the educational institution. If institutional membership is obtained through a state secondary-school principals' association, it shall be \$10.00 per year. The principal of a member school shall be credited with a personal participating membership and shall receive all benefits and privileges pertaining thereto. In addition, the school library shall receive a duplicate copy of all proceedings, bulletins, special reports, and a subscription to STUDENT LIFE. The school may also designate any staff representative who shall receive delegate privileges at the annual conventions of the Association.

SECTION 6. Any individual eligible to active or associate membership in the National Association of Secondary-School Principals shall have life membership upon payment of the life membership fee of \$150.00 to the executive secretary.

SECTION 7. Only active members holding *full time and active* administrative positions in secondary education in schools or state departments of education shall have the privilege of holding office.

SECTION 8. *The Executive Committee shall have power to pass upon the qualifications of all applicants for membership.*

ARTICLE IV—Officers

SECTION 1. The elective officers of the Association shall be a President, a First Vice President, and a Second Vice President.

SECTION 2. *The President and Vice Presidents shall have held office as members of the Executive Committee.*

SECTION 3. The President and Vice Presidents shall hold office for a period of one year, or until a successor has been duly elected and properly qualified, and shall not be eligible for re-election to the same office.

SECTION 4. The Executive Committee shall consist of the officers and four other members each elected for a term of four years. *This Committee shall be composed of qualified active members elected from each of the following seven regions:*

REGION 1—Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island;

REGION 2—New York, New York City, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, District of Columbia, Pennsylvania;

REGION 3—Kentucky, Virginia, Tennessee, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Florida, Louisiana, Mississippi, Texas;

REGION 4—Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, North Dakota, South Dakota, Wyoming;

REGION 5—West Virginia, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, Nebraska;

REGION 6—Arkansas, Missouri, Kansas, Oklahoma, New Mexico, Arizona, Colorado;

REGION 7—Montana, Idaho, Washington, Oregon, California, Utah, Nevada and Hawaii.

In the event of a vacancy in the membership of the Executive Committee or in the offices of the Association such vacancy or vacancies shall be filled at the next annual election according to the regular election procedure, with priority given the senior members of the Executive Committee. All officers or members of the Executive Committee who were elected to office after the person vacating office was first elected, shall move ahead one year for each vacancy. The newly elected member shall have a term of three years and shall take precedence over the member normally elected to a four-year term. If more than one vacancy occurs in any one year, the same procedure shall apply.

SECTION 5. *An officer or member of the Executive Committee shall remain eligible according to Article III, Section 7, and reside in the region he was elected to represent to continue in office beyond the current year.*

SECTION 6. *The Executive Secretary shall be selected by the Executive Committee; his duties and compensation shall be determined by the Executive Committee. The Assistant Secretaries shall be elected by the Executive Committee upon recommendation by the Executive Secretary; their duties and compensation shall be determined by the Executive Committee.*

SECTION 7. *The Executive Committee shall: (a) assist the President in arranging for an annual convention and in other matters where his decision will affect the policy and welfare of the Association; (b) appoint such commissions, committees, and consultants to carry on the business of the Association and shall define their duties and determine length of office of such appointment; (c) shall review and evaluate the work of the various committees and keep the Association informed of such reviews and evaluations; (d) prepare an annual budget and render a report to the Association; (e) interpret the provisions of the Constitution in case of doubt relative to its provisions; (f) shall review from time to time the provisions of the Constitution and appoint committees when deemed necessary to recommend changes; (g) shall perform, subject to review by the National Advisory Council and approval by the National Association, such other duties as may be necessary for the efficient functioning and administration of the Association.*

SECTION 8. *Each state association shall elect or select a State Coordinator who shall represent both the state association and the national organization. When state associations do not provide such an officer, the Executive Committee of the National Association shall appoint a State Coordinator. At the time of the selection of the Coordinator, the state association shall appoint an alternate State Coordinator to serve in the absence of the Coordinator. The names of the Coordinator and his alternate shall be submitted to the Executive Secretary of the National Association.*

tion at least sixty days prior to the national convention. Each State Coordinator shall: (a) encourage membership in both State and National Associations; (b) interpret and explain the work and various projects of the National Association to his state association; (c) encourage individual participation in the professional work of the State and National Associations; (d) recommend key people in his area for committee assignment by the Executive Committee; and (e) keep the Executive Committee informed concerning problems and projects of his State Association.

ARTICLE V—National Advisory Council

SECTION 1. *There shall be a National Advisory Council whose membership shall consist of the following: (a) the three officers, namely the President, Secretary, and State Coordinator, from each affiliated State Association; (b) all members of the Executive Committee; and (c) all active past Presidents of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals currently in positions of secondary-school administration.*

SECTION 2. *The National Advisory Council shall meet annually at the time of the annual meeting of the National Association. Such meeting shall be for one or two sessions for the purpose of (a) receiving reports from the Executive Committee, and (b) discussion of problems and concerns of state associations and the National Association.*

SECTION 3. *The President of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals shall be the presiding officer of the National Advisory Council. The Executive Secretary shall act as Secretary of the National Advisory Council.*

SECTION 4. *The National Advisory Council shall: (a) advise the Executive Committee concerning activities, projects, and proposals for the National Association; (b) stimulate the study of problems and issues in secondary education; (c) suggest, coordinate, and report activities and experiments of the state associations; (d) serve as a discussion group for problems affecting the National and State Associations; and (e) consider ways and means of unifying and co-ordinating efforts and work of the leading forces in secondary education.*

ARTICLE VI—Nominations and Elections

SECTION 1. *The State Coordinators shall constitute a Board of Nominators for the elective officers of the Association. If a nomination is made by a state, the Coordinator shall send to the Executive Secretary of the Association, not less than sixty days in advance of the annual meeting, the name of such nomination for any elective office. Nominations shall not be made after that date. The Coordinators shall obtain the endorsement of the state association for the name submitted. The Coordinator shall send a supporting statement and endorsement for each of his nominations in accordance with the qualifications as listed in Article VI, Section 3. The*

Executive Secretary shall then compile a list of such nominations with their qualifications as set forth on a prescribed form and, together with a list of offices to be filled, shall submit the same to each State Coordinator within a thirty-day period prior to the national convention, at which time the election is to take place.

SECTION 2. The State Coordinators shall meet as a Board of Nominators at a regularly scheduled meeting at the time of the annual convention. *An official report of the nominations with supporting statements and endorsements shall be presented by the chairman of the Board of Nominators, who shall previously have been appointed by the President from the present or past membership of the Executive Committee.*

SECTION 3. The Board of Nominators in making their final selection shall consider the tabulated returns in relation to: (a) service which the nominee has given his state principals' association and particularly the National Association; (b) qualities and accomplishments which point to successful national leadership; (c) consideration to the standing of the school represented by the nominee; (d) consideration to the frequency of representation from each of the various geographic regions; (e) consideration for seniority in following sequence of office in respect to nominees; and (f) freedom to propose other nominations under justifiable expedient.

SECTION 4. Eighteen Coordinators shall constitute a quorum for the Board of Nominators. *In the event of a lack of a quorum, then the vacancies on the Board of Nominators shall be filled by temporary appointments made by the Executive Committee or the President.*

SECTION 5. The Chairman of the Board of Nominators shall submit the final list of candidates as prepared by the Board to the members of the Association at the annual business meeting. A written statement in support of each nominee shall be read by the chairman to the members assembled, if requested, and other nominations called for in accordance with parliamentary procedure provided the name of any other person nominated by a State Coordinator is from the list submitted sixty days in advance of the meeting.

SECTION 6. *The officers and members of the Executive Committee shall be elected by the Association at the annual business meeting.*

ARTICLE VII—Finance

The President shall appoint annually, subject to the approval of the Executive Committee, two members who shall, with the Executive Secretary, constitute a Board of Finance to act in the capacity of trustees, to have custody of the funds of the Association, to have same properly audited, and to submit annually a report to the Association.

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ARTICLE VIII—Meetings

The National Association of Secondary-School Principals shall hold an annual convention. The regular annual business meeting shall be held at the time and place of the annual convention, unless arranged for otherwise by the Executive Committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

ARTICLE IX—Amendments

The Constitution may be amended by a two-thirds majority vote of *members* present and voting at the annual meeting. A proposed amendment must be submitted in writing at the preceding annual meeting, or must be submitted in printed form to all members of the Association thirty days before the annual meeting. In case the latter method is used, such amendment must receive the approval of the Executive Committee before it can be printed and sent to the members of the Association.

ARTICLE X—Rules of Order

Roberts' Rules of Order shall govern in all meetings of the Association.

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Financial Statements

of the

National Association of Secondary-School Principals

To the Finance Committee

National Association of Secondary-School Principals

A Department of the National Education Association

1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

Gentlemen:

At your request we have audited the accounts and records of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals for the Fiscal Year ending June 30, 1956.

CERTIFICATE

We have audited the accounts and records of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals for the Fiscal Year ended June 30, 1956. Our audit was made in accordance with generally accepted auditing standards and accordingly included such tests of the accounting records and such other auditing procedures as we considered necessary in the circumstances.

In our opinion, the accompanying balance sheet and related statements of income and earnings, together with the comments forming a part thereof, present fairly the financial position of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals at June 30, 1956 and the results of its operations for the year then ended, in conformity with generally accepted accounting principles applied on a basis consistent with that of the preceding year.

Respectfully submitted, FLOYD W. BUSH,
Certified Public Accountant.

BALANCE SHEET—JUNE 30, 1956

ASSETS

Cash on hand— checking accounts	\$150,812.42	
Cash on hand— savings accounts	242,477.25	\$393,289.67
Petty cash fund	<hr/>	20.00 \$393,309.67
		<hr/>

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Returned checks		50.00
Bills receivable		4,717.58
Bills receivable—Members		4,692.87
Inventories		75,720.16
Securities (listed below)		108,450.00
Furniture and fixtures	50,850.55	
Less—Depreciation taken to date	12,869.19	37,981.36
Total Assets		<u>\$624,921.64</u>

LIABILITIES AND NET WORTH

Bills payable			
Net worth July 1, 1955, per prior report dated September 13, 1955	\$423,840.85		
Less furniture and fixture adjustment	164.21	\$423,676.64	
Add—net profit for fiscal year ended June 30, 1956		54,621.51	478,298.15
Scholarship Fund:			
Balance of fund July 1, 1955, per prior report dated Sep- tember 13, 1955		20,438.25	
Add			
Receipts	203,235.00		
Less disbursements	92,607.62	110,627.38	131,065.63
Total Liabilities and Net Worth			<u>\$624,921.64</u>

STATEMENT OF INVESTMENT

June 30, 1956

Stocks:

One La Salle Street Company, 5 shares, no par value	\$ 500.00
Peoria Public Service Company, 90 shares	450.00

Public Utility Bonds:

Peoria Public Service Company, 5%, due June 1, 1939 (extended to June 1, 1959)	1,500.00
---	----------

United States Bonds:

U. S. Treasury, 3% of 1995	18,000.00
U. S. Treasury, 2 3/4% of 1959-65	13,000.00
U. S. Savings Bonds, Series G	57,000.00
U. S. Savings Bonds, Series K	18,000.00

Total Value of Investment	<u>\$108,450.00</u>
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MERIT RATING PLAN

Ellsworth Tompkins, Assistant Secretary, reported briefly on a Study by the Association on the Merit-Rating Plan. The summary of the Study was published in the October 1956 issue of *THE BULLETIN* under the title "The Case for and Against Merit Rating."

SALARY SCHEDULE

Dr. Tompkins also reported on a spot study on salaries of secondary-school principals. This report was adopted by the Executive Committee on February 21, 1957, and given general approval by the National Advisory Council on February 24, 1957. The proposed schedule for secondary-school administrators is based on a ratio index and related to the maximum salary of the teacher in the secondary school.

Salary Standards

After analysis of salary policy and review of salary schedules in hundreds of school systems, the National Association of Secondary-School Principals proposes these salary standards for full-time administrative personnel in secondary schools. The education and experience of a professionally qualified principal should include at least:

1. A master's degree, with emphasis on secondary-school administration, organization, and supervision.
2. An administrator's or principal's certificate or its equivalent issued by the state department of education.
3. Five years of teaching and/or supervisory experience, with the major portion on the secondary-school level.
4. For large schools, three years of additional administrative experience.

Basic Considerations in Salary Standards

1. Only a professionally qualified and adequately paid principal can be expected to be the responsible administrative head of a secondary school.
2. Salary standards for principals should be high enough (1) to attract and retain professionally qualified administrators, (2) to compare favorably with salaries paid in business and industry, and (3) to place them in proper perspective to salary standards for teachers and superintendents. Adjustments in principals' salaries have lagged far behind pay scales for comparable employees in business and industry, and also have failed to keep pace with salary adjustments of teachers, however inadequate these may be.¹
3. Adequate salaries for principals cannot be achieved without a salary schedule.

- A. Principals' salary schedules usually follow one or a combination of these two patterns:

¹Boardsley Ruml and Sidney Tickton, *Teaching Salaries Now and Then*. Bulletin No. 1, Fund for the Advancement of Education, 655 Madison Avenue, New York 21, New York. Free.

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- (1). A schedule of stated maximums and minimums with specified number and amount of increment, independent of teachers' salary schedule.
 - (2). A schedule based upon a percentage ratio or a differential amount above regular teachers' salary schedule.
- B. Principals' salary schedules commonly involve use of these factors:
- (1). Size of school
 - (2). Amount of professional preparation
 - (3). Years of experience

The advantage of relating principals' salary schedules to teachers' salary schedules by percentage ratios is that a change in teachers' schedule will automatically bring about a proportionate change in principals' schedule.

4. Recommendations of salary standards for secondary-school principals should be based on maximum salaries. Principals' maximum salaries have a specific relationship to teachers' maximum salaries whether or not that relationship is explicitly expressed. When that relationship is stated, salary standards for principals tend to maintain their "place" in the changing salary patterns of a school system.

Recommendations

1. Recommended maximum salaries for full-time secondary-school principals and assistant principals, based upon percentage ratios above teachers' maximum salaries, and classified by size of school, are listed in the following table:

Maximum Teachers' Salary with M.A. = 1.00		
<i>Suggested Size of Enrollment^a</i>	<i>Principal^b</i>	<i>Assistant Principal</i>
A. Secondary schools under 500	1.50 ^c 1.30 ^d	
B. Secondary schools 500-1,000	1.75 ^c 1.50 ^d	1.50 ^c 1.30 ^d
C. Secondary schools 1,000-2,500	1.95 ^c 1.70 ^d	1.65 ^c 1.40 ^d

^a No special recommendation for secondary schools over 2,500 enrollment.

^b Read: Under column "Principal," 1.50 means one and one-half times the maximum teachers' salary.

^c 12-month employment, with 3-4 weeks vacation allowance during summer period.

^d 10-month employment, with 8-10 weeks vacation allowance during summer period.

2. The *spread* between the principals' maximum and minimum salaries should be no greater than \$1,500, with \$1,200 recommended.

3. The number of increments should be no more than 6 with 4 recommended.

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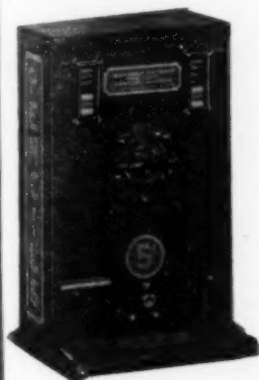
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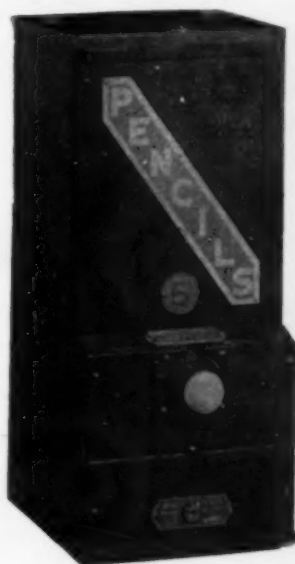
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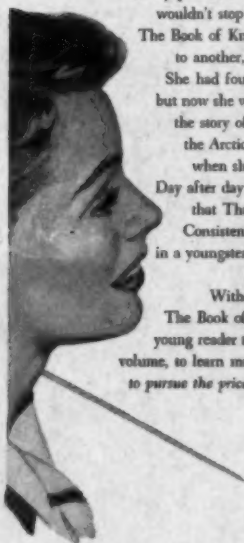
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